

**TITLE PAGE**

**ANGLIA RUSKIN UNIVERSITY**

**ACADEMIC STAFF WORKING CONDITIONS,  
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND PERFORMANCE OF  
NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES**

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University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business**

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Stella-Maria Nwokeocha, February 2015.

ANGLIA RUSKIN UNIVERSITY

**ABSTRACT**

**LORD ASHCROFT INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS SCHOOL**

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**ACADEMIC STAFF WORKING CONDITIONS, ORGANIZATIONAL  
COMMITMENT AND PERFORMANCE OF NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES.**

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**February 2015**

This thesis explored the academic staff working conditions, organizational commitment and performance of Nigerian universities. There is a general thinking that there has been a decline on the motivation of the average academic staff in Nigerian university system leading to brain drain situation and a decline in quality of performance of the universities. Incidentally, there is limited empirical evidence comprehensive enough to serve as a framework of what the academics need at work to make them more inclined to remain in their universities, including university performance. This thesis explored the topic in a comprehensive way with academics from six Nigerian universities. It answers the question what and how did the perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and university performance in Nigeria evolve, and what can be done to improve it?

The research design was cross-sectional. Qualitative and quantitative information were gathered to uncover the historical origin of the problems; satisfaction with current working conditions, issues of personal growth, organizational commitment, and university performance. A sample of 248 academics participated in the study.

Historically, both structural and managerial issues, internal and external factors, were implicated in the evolution of the problems in the university system. Satisfaction with teaching resources and facilities was poorest. Factors important for personal growth were the same as those that would make the academics more inclined to stay, though, concern with basic salary and welfare were more prominent in decision to stay. Reference to comparable situations with colleagues elsewhere was basis for need to improve on some work factors like salary.

The thesis concludes that, deficiency-growth factors, intrinsic-extrinsic factors, and equity issues are important in dealing with the organizational commitment and performance problems in the Nigerian universities studied. Suggestions and limitations of the study are provided.

*Key words:* academic staff, Nigerian universities, working conditions, organizational commitment, performance, motivation.

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## **LIST OF KEY ABBREVIATIONS**

ABU	Ahmadu Bello University
ASUU	Academic Staff Union of Universities
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BIU	Benson Idahosa University
BOU	Bowen University
COREN	Council for the Regulation of Engineering in Nigeria
CPRCN	Computer Professionals Registration Council of Nigeria
EBSU	Ebonyi State University
FGN	Federal Government of Nigeria
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Products
HATISS	Harmonized Tertiary Institutions Salary Structure
ICT	Information and communication technology
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISD	Information System Developers
JAMB	Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board
JCCE	Joint Consultative Committee on Education
LCE	Legal Council on Education
MDCN	Medical and Dental Council of Nigeria
NANS	National Association of Nigerian Students
NBTE	National Board for Technical Education

NSUK	Nasarawa State University, Keffi
NUC	National Universities Commission
PAYE	Pay as you earn
PCN	Pharmacists Council of Nigeria
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
QA	Quality Assurance
RMAFC	Revenue Mobilization Allocation and Fiscal Committee
RSA	Retirement savings account
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SSANU	Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities
TRCN	Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria
UGSS	Unified grading and salary structure
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNN	University of Nigeria, Nsukka
US	United States
USS	University System Scales
UTME	Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination
VC	Vice Chancellor
WAEC	West African Examination Council

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**Academic Staff Working Conditions, Organizational Commitment and  
Performance of Nigerian Universities**

**STELLA-MARIA O. NWOKEOCHA**

**A thesis in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Anglia Ruskin**

**University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business**

**Submitted: February 2015**

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background of the Study**

A motivated workforce is regarded as a necessary instrument for industrial development, because the employees can contribute technically, socially and attitudinally towards achievement of organizational goals (Ukaegbu, 2000). However, the performance and commitment of a motivated employee can be affected by circumstances within his workplace. Such can be lack of opportunity and access to basic tools and skills required by the job (Huselid, 1995; Ofoegbu, 2004). In a Havard Business Review Network Blog by Marshall Goldsmith, an author, Judith Bardwick (2008) noted that enthusiastic employees stay and achieve results for the organization. A pool of such committed employees is created in an environment that shows equal and fair treatment of individuals and recognizes their achievement. Then again, the value workers place on different rewards will affect their motivation, performance and commitment to their job (Ajila and Abiola, 2004). The different values that workers place on the motivational factors may be as a result of differences in socio-cultural background. As such, what employees perceive as valuable and which could make them committed in their organizations in a developing country, such as Nigeria, is likely to be different from what employees of developed or western countries (where related studies had been conducted) perceive as valuable and capable of enhancing their commitment (e.g. Porter, Steers and Mowday, 1974; Currivan, 1999; Ovadje and Muogboh, 2009). Hence, this study presents new perspectives and generates new information to aid the understanding of working conditions, organizational commitment of workers and performance of organizations.

It is globally recognized that education is crucial to economic and social development of any nation and its citizenry (Saint, Hartnett and Strassner, 2003; Okojie, 2008). According to the incumbent chief executive of the National Universities Commission (NUC) of Nigeria, Professor Julius Okojie (2008, p.1), “a forward looking government, no matter what it costs, will ensure that its citizenry is educated; not just any kind of education but a focused and qualitative one”. It is equally believed that education should function to improve the welfare of an individual and the political life of a nation. As Woolman (2001,

p.27) puts it, “education should function as an agency of cultural transmission as well as change; it should also reflect the dynamic process of nation-building that is continually being modified by new conditions”. This explains why governments invest so much of their scarce resources in education. The UNESCO even prescribed that governments should allocate a minimum of 26% of their annual budgets to education (Academic Staff Union of Universities - ASUU, 2001 cited in Ogwuche, 2008). A prescription that has been very difficult for most governments to meet, but it underscores the fact that education holds the key to the future and that the success or failure of future generation hinges on education.

Each level of the education system, from primary to university, has critical roles assigned to it. The primary level lays the foundations for future career either in academics, trades, crafts or other specializations. According to Nigeria’s National Policy on Education (NPE, 2004), primary education which is the foundation level is believed to be key to the success of the whole education system. The secondary education, as an intermediate stage, strengthens the focus of students towards higher education and useful living within the wider society (NPE, 2004). This is such, so that those of them that wish to pursue higher education will be suitably qualified and prepared to do so, while those that wish to branch out to pursue other occupations will stand more chance of succeeding than their peers that dropped out after primary education. Of particular interest to this study is the university level which represents the hope of any society for attaining the highest level of development in all sectors – economy, politics, arts, etc. This is because, it appears to be a critical component in human development as it helps improve recipients skills and therefore, apart from improving the quality of life of individuals, it also helps develop high level manpower need of any nation.

In the view of Mohanan (2005), university education has four interlocking goals:

1. Dissemination of knowledge so that the knowledge of older generations are not lost but transferred to younger generation,
2. Training of people for production of the manpower needed for the preservation and progress of the nation and society,
3. Training of researchers needed for preservation and expansion of human knowledge,
4. The development and enhancement of the inner potential of individuals (intellectual, moral, emotional, physical, social, cultural, spiritual, etc.).

Nigeria at early stage of its independence in 1960 recognized the importance of university education in national development and decided to establish universities for its citizens. The establishment of some of the universities occurred during the oil boom period of the country (the 1970's). During this period, the universities were well funded (Omoregie and Hartnett, 1995; Dabalen, Oni and Adekola, 2000; Okebukola, 2010).

Due to the very high hopes placed on universities by the society, they are regular subjects for discussion, especially, with regard to the quality of education received by their students and contribution towards national development (for example, through research and public services). For instance, Banjo (2006, p.5) seems to summarise the vision of universities in its broadest term to be “of a system of institutions whose ultimate goal is to create a better society”, and which, it seeks to do through the production of “a good and efficient citizenry”. Therefore, it is important to ensure proper functioning of these institutions, especially, in a developing country such as Nigeria, for the production of the educated and high-level skills needed to move the country forward.

Based on literatures on organizational behaviour, and the understanding that human capital is one of the key assets or resource of any organization (e.g. McKenna and Beech, 2008; Armstrong, 2008; Thomson, Mabey and Ebrary, 2011; Cornell University, n.d), this study makes an assumption that the universities in Nigeria are human organizations whose successes depend primarily on the motivation, competencies, quality, and commitment of the employees. Again for universities, whose goals are basically academic, their success could be very directly traced to the quality of academic staff and the commitment of such staff based on the working conditions that motivate them in the university system. These conditions could be monetary in nature, like salaries and allowances, the pension schemes designed to take care of staff after retirement; or the general conditions of service such as retirement age, sabbatical leave, opportunities for research at home and abroad, and so on. Others could be job security based on the likelihood or otherwise that a staff could be laid off any time and the general work environment. All these factors are assumed, could attract and retain academic staff, and thereby, raise the profile of a university in terms of performance.

This study further assumes that the variables or factors enumerated above are not necessarily the same in all universities especially as there are variations in these factors

across the federal, state and private universities. Even within each sector (federal, state and private) the factors enumerated above may not apply equally, as the universities have different proprietors and hence, different funding patterns. However, all the universities in Nigeria are under the same regulatory body and with the same expectations from the citizenry. Consequently, it is practicable to investigate the working conditions in the universities, issues bothering on organizational commitment of their academic staff, and the performances of the universities under the prevailing working conditions. To measure performance of the universities in trying to achieve the various university goals, several indices could be employed. These include the ones used in global and regional ranking of universities, as well as the indices used by the national university regulatory agencies in their assessment of university performance.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

It is reported that the problems in higher education of Nigeria had started as a result of: the fall in the oil boom period of Nigeria; devaluation of its currency due to the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in the mid-1980s; and the reduction of the country's expenditure on higher education due to the advice of the Breton Woods Institutions – the World Bank and IMF – to African leaders to invest more on basic education and less on higher education (Saint, Hartnett and Strassner, 2003; Okebukola, 2010). Over the years, the Nigerian Education system is said to be in crises (Nwabueze, 1995; Ekong, 2002; Sulaiman, 2001; Federal Ministry of Education - FME, 2006; Okecha, 2008). For instance, a former Minister of Education, Professor Ben Nwabueze, in his book titled, *Crises and Problems in Education in Nigeria* (pp.ix-xii), gave details of the crises from the primary school to the university. The following are his key points for the primary, secondary and university education:

- (i) The most worrisome of the crises and problems is the “endemicity of workers’ strikes” (p.ix) - for example, the strike by the primary and secondary school teachers which was on before he assumed office as the Secretary for Education and Youth Development in January 1993 (an eight month tenure) was followed by that of the non-teaching staff of universities, and which in turn was joined by the teaching staff of universities;
- (ii) falling standards due to un-conducive learning environment, lack or inadequacy of learning and instructional facilities and inadequate funding; and,
- (iii) for universities, the problem is extended by insufficient funding; lack of coherent education policy by successive Governments; undue interference with the universities’ autonomy; corruption, the disdain for intellectualism and the enthronement of mediocrity,

the importation of trade unionism into the universities, the dichotomization of the university community into groups or classes; poor quality of leadership; wasteful and improper spending among others.

The university system, therefore, has a great share of the crises in the education sector. Prior to its independence in 1960, Nigeria had only one tertiary institution that operated as a College of the University of London. After independence, there had been rapid increase in the number of universities in the country due to high demand for access resulting from greater awareness of the value of university education. At the early stage of this independence, around early 1970s, the country had a well-regarded university education system. The institutions were competing favourably in terms of research and other areas at international level (Babalola, 2006). They were well funded, staff well remunerated and catered for. However, events of late 1970's saw the dwindling of these gains in university education. This period witnessed poor funding in the midst of high student enrolment, reduction of staff salaries, deteriorating working conditions, infrastructural decay, and government interference in the internal affairs of the universities (Moja, 2000; Saint et al, 2003; Okecha, 2008; Okebukola, 2010; and others). These developments gave rise to many problems in the university education system. The various worker unions were regularly on strike demanding for better pay. The strikes, in turn, interrupt the smooth flow of the academic calendar. When the institutions resume, little time would be left for the staff and students to cover the syllabi. Furthermore, the Nigerian universities hardly earn a place of pride in the world ranking of universities. This is blamed on several factors including the quality and quantity of available academic staff and their commitment to the university system.

There is also the 'brain drain' syndrome, which is a situation where the brightest Nigerian intellectuals leave the universities in Nigeria for those abroad or other more lucrative jobs because they get better working conditions there. This resulted in the setting up of a committee by the university regulatory body in 1994 to study this incidence among Nigerian universities. There are several tracer studies done by various national and international authorities to ascertain the performance of universities in Nigeria and the findings reveal that there is decline in quality of products of the universities (e.g. Moja, 2000; Dabalén, Oni and Adekola, 2000). Partly due to this situation, many rich families and politicians prefer to send their children abroad to study.

Further, there is the issue of governance and leadership. Leadership and moral integrity were regarded by Akintayo (2008) as central to the crisis in Nigerian universities. Ekong (2002, p.15) pointed out that, some Vice-Chancellors, instead of protecting their constituency (the university) from “draconian government policies” tended to act as “government agents or “mere law enforcement officers”. The dichotomization of some of the university communities into different classes or groups and dictatorial leadership of some Vice-Chancellors as pointed out by some writers like Nwabueze (1995); Ekong (2002); Okecha (2008) had not also helped the Nigerian university system. Some of the activities of these leaders are believed to bring about inequity, rebellion and other vices in the university system which does not make for healthy working condition.

Uncoordinated and undisciplined educational policy which allowed proliferation of universities in the country without proper planning is believed to account for some of the problems in the university system (Toye, 1984). For instance, Toye (1984) noted that the emergence of the first five universities (the first generation universities which were all federal) in the country was carefully planned with evidence of support from the federal government and external bodies. However, later universities, especially the state universities were believed to have been established by state governors based on political motivation than genuine commitment towards institution of quality capable of generating the much needed manpower. The author called for caution in the establishment of more universities in the future.

In response to the high demand for university education in the face of limited resources, the Nigerian government licensed private universities. The number of these private universities has tremendously increased and is expected to continue to increase considering the inability of the existing universities to accommodate all the people seeking admission. For instance, in the last Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME) held on 24<sup>th</sup> March 2012, it was reported that out of a total of 1.5 million Nigerians that sat for the examination, only 500,000 candidates would be offered admission by university admission body in Nigeria, the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB). Ajayi and Ekundayo (2008) analysed reasons for deregulation of university education in Nigeria, that is, granting licenses to individuals and organizations interested in establishing their own universities. Some of the reasons include: to expand access to university education for those that need university education, to address the problem of scarce educational resources and, to raise alternatives ways of financing university education. Though the

private sector university has undergone very rapid expansion in terms of number, this does not reflect the extent of student enrolment as they constitute only 3.4% of total university student enrolment in Nigeria (Okorie, 2009; Ajadi, 2010a). However, there has been debate over the ability of private universities to provide the much needed quality university education that can be higher or at least approximate that of the public universities before their crises started (Erinosho, 2008; Owwoeye, n.d). While some scholars believe that the private universities are more profit-oriented, hence, incapable of providing quality university education (e.g. Erinosho, 2008; Ajadi, 2010a), some others believe otherwise. In recognition of this debate and in defense of private universities, Owwoeye (n.d) noted that one of the recent ranking of the universities in Nigeria by the university regulatory body, the National Universities Commission (NUC), saw a private university coming 14<sup>th</sup> position, while a government owned university came rear with 74<sup>th</sup> position.

The establishment of more universities by the federal and state governments, as well as private proprietors, either to address admission shortages in Nigeria, for profit, political or other interests, coupled with perennial crises in funding, inadequate infrastructure and other needs of staff warrants research. Such research will help assess the capacity of the universities to provide good working conditions that could enhance organizational commitment and engender academic excellence. Getting the perspectives of the academics themselves on what is important to them in their job will equally be useful in this regard. Teacher commitment is important for effective education (Firestone and Pennell, 1993). To achieve this effectiveness, it is important that workers, regarded as the most important asset of any organization are happy and committed to their organizations. Research targeted towards understanding important needs that would likely guarantee good disposition of academics in Nigeria towards their universities seems to be limited. Also, there seems to be limited understanding of the achievement of these universities in certain areas of their mandates, especially, those mandates related to the work of the academics. Hence, it is important to study the working conditions, organizational commitment and performance of the universities in this research. This will be helpful in gaining more insight and understanding of those issues perceived to be hindering effective university education delivery in the country. It is against this background that the study intends to trace the history of the crises in the university system that had affected workers commitment, investigate how the academic staff in Nigeria perceive their current working

conditions, find out factors of work they consider important for them to remain in their universities and, performances of the universities under the current working conditions.

### **1.3 Research Aims and Objectives**

The aim of the research is to explore the working conditions in Nigerian universities based on the opinion of the academic staff, ascertain the factors most critical in enhancing the organizational commitment of the academics, and also, investigate the performances of the universities under the current working conditions.

Objectives:

- i. Identify the perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and institutional performance in Nigerian universities.
- ii. Analyse how the perceived obstacles to commitment and university performance evolved.
- iii. Investigate the academic staff perception of their current working conditions.
- iv. Investigate work factors that are important for academic staff to remain in their universities.
- v. Investigate the level of performance of the universities under the current working conditions.

### **1.4 Research Question**

The research question for this study is: “What and how did the perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and university performance in Nigeria evolve, and what can be done to improve it?”

In order to find answers to the question, the following sub questions are raised:

- i. What are the perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and institutional performance in Nigerian universities,
- ii. How have the perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and university performance evolved?
- iii. What is the academic staff perception of their current working conditions?
- iv. What work factors are important for academic staff to remain in their job?
- v. What is the level of performance of the universities under the current working conditions?



### **1.5 How the research is impacting on the researcher's interest/Justification for the research**

As an official in the Federal Ministry of Education of the country studied, with schedules that cut across human resource activities, understanding how human motivation presents a framework for the success or failure of the university education system is very important. This is because, such understanding can help in decisions related to employees' needs that may impact on their productivity and performances of their institutions. The researcher's passion in seeing that she contributes to the improvement of university education in Nigeria is also important to her as it is to other beneficiaries from the system, being that, university education is seen as a tool for societal development. Almost every citizen of Nigeria has a stake in the education system, directly or indirectly. This can be through the direct benefits of the education of their children and wards, to that of accelerated national development. Therefore, in getting to know the kind of environment under which academics in Nigeria work and what they need to keep them in their institutions in order to contribute effectively towards institutional performance is an important theoretical contribution towards our understanding of the issues bothering on working conditions, organizational commitment and performance in a developing country such as Nigeria.

### **1.6 Scope of the Study/Delimitation**

- i. The study covered the federal, state and private universities in Nigeria. It also recognized the two major geo-political zones of the country; hence, selection of the universities for study was based along the North-South divide. This is in recognition of the cultural differences along this line, which may reflect differences in values among academics from the two zones.
- ii. The study covers the opinions of university academic staff, which in Nigeria includes all senior staff performing academic functions from the positions of Graduate Assistants to Professors. The Deans of Faculties and Heads of Departments are also included in this list.
- iii. It is understandable that many work factors exist in the workplace which can influence the organizational commitment of academic staff and institutional performance. However, this research tries to understand the opinions of academic staff with regard to only few working conditions factors like salary and fringe benefits, career and professional development, work environment, teaching resources and facilities, and governance and leadership.

- iv. Research design: The research is a cross-sectional study design. However, part of the evidence in answering the research questions comes from documentary secondary data of the historical evolution of the crises in Nigerian universities. The primary data is collected through an informal preliminary qualitative interview session and questionnaire.
- v. There are different components of organizational commitment. However, the research is only interested in knowing what will make the academic staff in the Nigerian universities studied more willing to remain in their institutions.
- vi. Further, there are several indicators of university performance. Only indicators directly linked to academic staff functions are considered.

### **1.7 Significance of the Study/ Contributions to Knowledge**

- i. It is known that what people value from their work differs and such value influence their behaviour towards their job and organization. Also, what employees' value for satisfaction in their work varies across countries (Greenberg and Baron, 2003). Most factors of working conditions represent rewards to employees; each employee may perceive these rewards differently in an organization (Ajila and Abiola, 2004). This study is significant in identifying crucial factors of work that the diverse academic staff in Nigerian university consider important for influencing their commitment and invariably, enhancing the performances of their organizations in the various goals they are set out to achieve. Hence, it provides some cost-effective measures for motivation of academic staff. This adds to our knowledge of what motivate people at work especially in the Nigerian setting. This understanding can be used by management as tool to enhance and maintain organizational commitment of their academic staff.
- ii. There is also, the belief that research should make positive impact on the society. Therefore, the need for researchers to look at areas that will help societal development. As instruments for societal development, it is therefore, important to study factors militating against the success of the institutions and those of their employees, the academic staff. This is because organizations are expected to provide favourable working conditions to enable its growth and those of their employees. Therefore, research geared towards providing practical tools for organizations, such as, is done in this study in the Nigerian universities are important. In this regard, this research highlights likely

problem areas that need to be addressed by management of the institutions and other stakeholders in the system. Hence, it can serve as a practical tool for university administrators in both public and private sectors, and government, in policy formulation directed towards improving working conditions for better performances of the universities.

- iii. The study also provides an interesting exploration of university education in Nigeria, with in-depth historical account of the origin of the motivational issues and challenges in the university system. This serves as secondary source of information for factors investigated in this study. The information from this historical account with primary data from the field provide a fundamental stock of knowledge about the problem of academic staff working conditions, commitment and performance of the universities in Nigeria.
- iv. Most research related to facets of employees working conditions and organizational commitment and performance are conducted mainly in western societies, which have different socio-cultural values from Nigeria. Such literature tends to suggest that the results and/or the effects of different working conditions on organizational outcomes like satisfaction and commitment and performance are not universal (e.g. Roe et al, 2000; Ajila and Abiola, 2004; Latham and Pinder, 2005). In the review of literature on the subject of study, the researcher was not able to find much empirical studies that investigated first-hand, from the perspectives of the academic staff in Nigerian universities, factors that would make them favourably disposed to remaining in their jobs. Considering the importance of having a happy and committed workforce in an organization, this research provides additional insight into what is known about employees' needs at work and their importance in relation to employees' commitment towards their organizations, in the specific case of the academic staff in the Nigerian universities studied.
- v. In addition, the background on Nigerian and its people, the development of its university education provides added knowledge and dimensions useful in understanding the context of the research. As such, outside being useful to scholars of human resource management, the research can also serve as reference for scholars of education management, industrial relations, historians and other related disciplines within and outside Nigeria.
- vi. Methodologically, the research has added to our understanding on the use of multiplicity of methods in obtaining more valid and comprehensive research

result. The blend of the original primary data emanating from the field work (preliminary in-depth interviews and the use of questionnaires to capture opinions of a wide range of respondents) and secondary evidence (document analysis) represent a contribution on the use of mixed methods in research investigation. This enabled a more valid and robust outcome from the investigation. The use of performance indicators to investigate the level of performance of the universities in the various aspects of their goals is also significant in revealing the multidimensional character of performance measures in universities and/or higher education which some people may not be aware of.

Summarily, from the analysis above, the research has contributed both theoretically, practically, and methodologically in our understanding of academic staff working conditions and problems of commitment in the Nigerian university system which had affected the universities negatively in the discharge of their responsibilities.

## **1.8 Summary of Methodology:**

### **1.8.1 Research Design:** Cross-sectional design

1. Research strategy - Survey
2. Data collection method – primary and secondary data were collected. Primary data were collected through interviews and questionnaire while secondary data were collected from documents. The documents provide historical evidence of the evolution of the perceived obstacles in academic staff commitment in Nigerian universities. The interviews and questionnaires were used to elicit information on their perception about their current working conditions and investigate factors that would make them more committed to remain in their universities. The secondary evidence shows that though, the situations in the universities were mainly structural showing economic/financial and noneconomic/nonfinancial dimensions. There are also some managerial dimensions which this research views would be important for management of the various institutions to focus on.
3. Sampling technique: This is through stratification and simple random sampling. Samples were selected from federal, state and private universities to investigate issues studied in the research. The idea is not to compare universities but to find out on aggregate level, what the average academic staff from the universities studied feels about his working conditions, investigate factors important for

keeping the academics committed to their organizations, and performances of the universities in selected goal areas under the current working conditions.

4. Method of data analysis - Data analysis is through narrative analysis of interviews and documents, statistical and thematic analysis of the questionnaire. Though the idea is to carry out investigation at an aggregate level, the research also recognizes contextual issues as regards university ownership/proprietorship. In this respect, variations in areas such as funding and management could affect responses received from participants. Therefore, analysis of data is done both at the aggregate university level as well as ownership and, in some cases, individual university levels.

## **1.9 Cultural, Historical and Political Context of the Research**

### **1.9.1 Nigeria and its People:**

Nigeria is Africa's most populous country with about 140 million people (National Bureau of Statistics, 2010; BBC News, 2006; Clark and Sedgwick, 2004). It is a former British colony that gained independence in 1960. Nigeria is multi-ethnic, multi-religious, politically diverse, and the foremost economic and political power in West Africa and among the leading African economies and polities (Saint et al, 2003; Woolman, 2001). It is also regarded as the most populous black nation in the world and one of the world's biggest producers of crude oil which accounts for over 90 per cent of its exports (Culturelink, 1996). Agriculture provides the bulk of its food and raw materials, there is also the non-oil exports sector. Traditional and religious titles, academic title and wealth are revered symbols of recognition in the country. Respect for age or elderly persons is highly valued and a sign of good family upbringing; as a Nigerian, you are expected to respect and greet your elders or senior ones wherever you find yourself. This is further buttressed in an article by Olu (2013) as follow: "In Nigeria, we believe in showing the utmost respect for your elders—elders meaning parents and their peers, grandparents, older friends and teachers". Disciplining of a child is seen as a collective responsibility, an elder can discipline a child that is not his/hers or report him to his parents if such a child is caught misbehaving.

Nigeria is bounded on the east by Chad and Cameroun, on the west by Benin Republic, on the north by Niger and on the south by the Gulf of Guinea (Okojie, 2008; Defense Language Institute, 2011; Curry, n.d). Before 1991, its capital was Lagos but now relocated to Abuja (Defense Language Institute, 2011; The Columbia Encyclopedia, n.d;

Federal Capital Development Authority, n.d). It is estimated to have about 250 ethnic groups; but four of these groups are recognized to be dominant and include: Hausa-Fulani in the northern part of the country, the Yoruba in the west and the Igbo in the east, though, the Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo are often regarded as the three dominant ethnic groups (Curry, n.d). The four groups are believed to account for accounting for more than 50% of the country's population. Some of the other ethnic groups include the Binis, Kanuri, Ibibio, Ijaw, Ishekiri, Efik, Nupe, Tiv and Jukun (Embassy of the Federal Republic of Nigeria). However, English is the official language of Nigeria and spoken throughout the country. The country runs a Federal system of government which has three tiers or levels of governance: the Federal, State and Local Governments. There are 36 States of the Federation and a Federal Capital Territory called Abuja. The country's former capital was Lagos.

The country of Nigeria is currently divided into six geopolitical zones. Three of these zones (South-East, South-South and South-West) are in the South of Nigeria while the other three (North-Central, North-East and North-West) are in the North. The two major religions in Nigeria are Christianity which is predominant in the south, and Islam that is predominant in the north. A third group engage in the ancient traditional religious practices of the various ethnic groups in Nigeria. Relatively few people seem to belong to this group (Microsoft Encarta Encyclopedia Standard, 2007).

According to the Microsoft Encarta Encyclopedia Standard 2007:

*At least 50 per cent of Nigeria's people are Muslim, the bulk of whom live in the Hausa, Fulani, and Kanuri areas in the north. About 40 per cent of Nigerians are Christians; Roman Catholicism is centred in the south-east, while Methodism and other Christian denominations and sects have a strong following in various parts of both the south-east and south-west. Some 18 per cent practise traditional religions... The names of the three main peoples in Nigeria (the Hausa, the Igbo (or Ibo), and the Yoruba) correspond to the languages spoken by those peoples. Yoruba (a Niger-Congo language) and Hausa (Chadic) are the most widely spoken languages (with over 18.5 million speakers of each in Nigeria itself), followed by Igbo (around 18 million), and then Fulfulde (over 7.5 million) and Kanuri (3 million). Edo, Efik, and Idoma are also important national languages.*

### **1.9.2 Historical and Political Context of Nigeria**

Historically, the life style of the two main regional divides of Nigeria, Northern and Southern Nigeria, before colonization was said to be heavily influenced by outsiders. From the accounts of Ifemeje (1979c), it appears that western education came into Nigeria through the South around 1842, whilst Islamic Education penetrated Nigeria through the

North much earlier. Consequently, Western Education and lifestyle are more pronounced in the South, while Islamic Education and lifestyle are more pronounced in the North.

For the North, their contact with North Africans and Arabs during the Trans-Sahara trade transformed the society; while in the South, the contact of the people with the Europeans by 1486 influenced their society (Curry, n.d). Accounts of the introduction of Western education in Nigeria indicate that the European missionaries that brought Western education entered the country in the nineteenth century. Prior to this time, what existed was the traditional and Quaranic education (Mkpa, 2010; Ivorgba, 2006). According to Mkpa (2010), Quaranic education was known to have existed in Hausa land in the northern part of the country since the 14<sup>th</sup> century with the coming of traders and scholars from Wangarawa, whose basic teachings were Arabic and Islamic studies. Through the contact, the Northern part of Nigeria became Islamic, with Arabic being the mode of teaching in Islamic education.

During the traditional period, education took the form of training by members of the communities who had special skills to impart to others in vocational areas such as farming, trading, craft work, fishing, wine tapping, cattle rearing, traditional medicine and black-smithing. The traditional education was regarded as comprehensive as it provided opportunity for training in “physical, character, intellectual, social and vocational development” but with absence of writing (Mkpa, 2010). Ifemeje (1979c, p.38) expressing his view on the nature of education during this period was of the opinion that “it can be generalized that a Nigerian boy or girl received from the family and the village his or her early education comparable to nursery and lower primary education of the present system”. Women were involved in subsistent economy within the framework of the family (Ibie, 1992) and girls were trained by their mothers on domestic chores and other activities such as cooking, sweeping, weeding the farm, hair weaving, body decoration, dyeing, etc.

The European contact brought about Western-style education in southern Nigeria through the Christian missionaries, as Christianity spread throughout the region. Education during the missionary period started with the arrival of the Wesleyan Christian Missionaries at about 1842, who built schools and provided education in formal European style, with the teaching provided by the missionary, his wife and other employees (Mkpa, 2010; Oni, 2009; Ifemeje, 1979). The accounts by these authors indicate that the key subjects taught then were reading, writing, arithmetic and religion which were believed to prepare the recipients for new roles as teachers, church evangelists or pastors, clerks and interpreters. Education pattern this early period was that set by the Muslim and Christian missionaries.

Ifemeje (1979) noted that educational projects were financed by the different Christian missions that emerged that period without assistance from government. Therefore, the main interest for education then was spiritual than intellectual. The intervention of the colonial administration in education in Nigeria was from 1882 but without participation in its management and administration (Ebuara et al, 2009). According to Ebuara et al (2009), the colonial government first intervention in Nigeria's education management, control and administration was in 1886 with the enactment of the Nigeria education ordinance (Ifemeje, 1979b). With this arose divergent views between the missions and the government on the content and purpose of education (Ivorgba, 2006). By 1909, the government of the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria (comprising the east and western part of the country) had built up to 58 primary schools and one secondary school. The only secondary school in the country then was known as King's College, Lagos (Ifemeje, 1979b). This spread of western education was predominant in Southern Nigeria; the situation in the North was different, as Islamic studies were dominant.

The clamour by Nigerians for a higher educational institution in Nigeria for Nigerian youths to receive higher education in their home country than abroad saw the official opening of Yaba Higher College on January 19, 1934 "by Sir Donald Cameron, the then Governor of Nigeria" (Fafunwa, 1971, p.32). Students from this College were later absorbed by the University College Ibadan when it was established in 1948 as an appendage of the University of London (Fafunwa, 1971; Ifemeje, 1979a; Jibril, 2003). From Fafunwa (1971) description of the opening of the Yaba Higher College, it had limited roles, and its number of staff from its opening to the time it formed part of Ibadan University College in 1947- 48 was never below nine and never exceeded thirteen. Ibadan University College, was opened in 1948, and was the only higher education institution in Nigeria before its independence on 1 October 1960. However, on the year of independence, precisely 7 October 1960, the University of Nigeria was opened by the eastern region government (Fafunwa, 1971; Ifemeje, 1979a). Part of the interest of the founder of the University of Nigeria, Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe, more than twenty years before its establishment, was to have a university with African values no matter where in Africa it was located (Fafunwa, 1971). Azikiwe's feelings with regard to this issue was captured by Fafunwa (1971, p.179) quoting from his (Azikiwe) publication in 1937. Azikiwe felt that African youths depending only on western universities for intellectual growth makes them "miseducated" (p.180). This is because of the differing societal values of the domain of these institutions which these youths are likely to imbibe, unless they had developed their "individuality" (p.180). Therefore, Azikiwe (1937, cited in Fafunwa, 1971, p.180) urged:



*“...Give the Renascent Africa a university, you who are capable of financing the same. With twelve million pounds there is no reason why the best libraries, laboratories, professors, cannot be produced right here, and this continent can become overnight, “A Continent of Light””* (Azikiwe, 1937, cited in Fafunwa, 1971, p.180).

According to Fafunwa (1971, p.180-181), Azikiwe’s dream was realized when he founded the Nigerian University in October 1960, located in the Eastern Region, and he patterned it after the “American land-grant university” (p.181). Fafunwa (1971) pointed out that the University of Nigeria was probably the first land-grant institution in the Commonwealth. More universities were established after independence.

Early in the twentieth century when Nigeria became a colony of Britain, the Northern and Southern regions were governed separately as British Protectorates. The complete colonization and amalgamation of the two regions in 1914 by the first Governor General, Sir Frederick Lugard brought the two regions together as one colony under a single administration (e.g. OnlineNigeria, 2004; Hughes, n.d; Geddes, 2010; Defense Language Institute, 2011). This action (the amalgamation) initiated a process which saw the adoption and spread of western education throughout the country. The current situation is that the cultures and traditions of the various ethnic groups have incorporated and blended with western education and lifestyles to a very great extent in the southern part of Nigeria and to some extent in the northern part. In other words, though western education has equally become the key education system in the northern part of the country, the culture and life style of the people there have blended more with Islamic practices and life style. Yet there are still several Christian communities with clear western lifestyles in the north and several Muslim communities with pronounced Islamic lifestyles in the south of Nigeria. The implication is that, though the south is predominantly western and Christian and the north is predominantly Islamic in outlook, the south is not exclusively western/Christian; neither is the north exclusively Islamic.

With the colonization, amalgamation and later independence of Nigeria, the culture and traditions of the people are constantly undergoing modernization under the influence of western education and lifestyle. Hence, the country Nigeria is comprised of great diversity of people and culture. Nigeria High Commission London put it this way: “Nigeria's cultural heritage is woven from threads of history and diversity, legend and conquest”. As a result of this great diversity in ethnic culture, several languages are associated with Nigerians. It has been indicated that the country has “over 50 languages, over 250 dialects and ethnic groups” (Federal Republic of Nigeria website). Among these languages, the three dominant ones are Yoruba, Igbo, and Hausa languages (Federal Republic of Nigeria;

BBC, 2014) spoken by the three dominant ethnic groups of: the Yoruba found mainly in the South-west; the Igbo who are predominant in the South-east; and the Hausa-Fulani found predominantly in the North, respectively. However, the international language is English (Federal Republic of Nigeria), spoken mainly among the educated elites and used in education and official transactions. Another popular version of the English Language spoken in the country is Pidgin English (sometimes called “pidgin”, “Broken English” or just “Broken”). It is mixture of English and the local languages meant originally to serve the interest of the less educated people in the country who cannot speak the more formal English, but has gained popularity among all and sundry in the country (Federal Republic of Nigeria).

Nigeria gained its independence from British rule October 1<sup>st</sup>, 1960 and became a republic in 1963. Its post-independence rule had been interplay between military and civilian rules. Accounts by Atoforati (1992) point to the fact that from independence in 1960, the country was under civilian rule until a military coup took place in 1966 that ushered in a military regime. Civil war broke out on July 6, 1967 and lasted until January 14, 1970. The military continued to be in power until 1<sup>st</sup> October, 1979 when a democratic government was introduced (Atoforati, 1992, Embassy of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, Washington, D. C., n.d). Once again, the democratic governance was overthrown by another military coup on 31<sup>st</sup> December, 1983 ushering in once more another military government which was again ousted from power by yet another military coup in 1993 (Atoforati, 1992, Embassy of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, Washington, D. C., n.d). The country returned to democratic rule in 1999 and is still under civilian administration till date. In other words, Nigeria had a long period of military rule and dictatorship (n.d; Jega, 1994; Geddes, 2010; Curry).

The major control of university education in Nigeria is the government, and the federal government sees university education as an instrument of national development (United States Diplomatic Mission to Nigeria). Most of the federal universities in Nigeria were established when the military was in power (Clark and Sedgwick). Some of the policies of government under the military were believed to have negatively affected activities of the universities in the country and made many of the academics to leave the university system. For instance, Jega (1994) noted that:

*“...prolonged military rule, combined with economic crisis and structural ad-justment, is the main problem faced by Nigerian universities. Through the viola-tion of academic freedom, the restriction of academic autonomy, underfunding and other adverse policies, military rule in Nigeria has*

*hindered the functioning of the universities, and has drastically curtailed their contribution to positive national development” (Jega, 1994, p.251).*

In his presentation on brain drain and the struggles by the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) in Nigeria, Yaqub (2007) observed that one of the manifestations of the economic downturn in Nigeria, from the mid-eighties to when civil rule returned in late nineties, was a rapid decline in the purchasing power of the Naira, the country's currency. Yaqub (2007, p.7) also noted that this period coincided with “the high point of military dictatorship” when any opposition element, including the ASUU, was harassed by the military. Some of the issues that arose during this period within the Nigerian university system included underfunding, understaffing, over-crowding and limited infrastructure and facilities. Jega (1995, p.253) explained how the military systematically underfunded the universities this way:

*“Funding of the university system reached its peak during the 1976-77 academic year, with public spending allocations totalling about 4,000 naira per student (equivalent to about \$5,000 according to 1975 exchange rates). From then on, it declined swiftly, down to barely 409 naira (about \$50) during the 1989-90 academic year. As a result, by 1992, the situation in the universities was chaotic, as reflected in the high student-teacher ratio (up to 1:200 in some courses), the lack of adequate laboratories and equip-ment, poorly stocked libraries, over-crowded classrooms and staff offices. It was also reflected in the low quality of the graduates produced by the system and in the brain drain phenomenon” (Jega, 1995, p.253).*

Going further on this, Jega (1995, p.254) noted that the academics during this period, also had to deal with despotic Vice Chancellors. Faced with these situations, many of the academics left the universities, while those that remained, in order to be relevant, got themselves better organized as a body known as ASUU, “...and tried to wrest concessions from the military controlled state. They have also championed popular resistance to the World Bank and the IMF-inspired policies which have caused so much suffering for Nigerians” (Jega, 1995, p.252). ASUU was also described as taking the position of the people's tribune. The worst period for the universities and the lecturers was regarded as between 1985 and 1993, the same mid-eighties to late nineties described by Yaqub (2007, p.7) as the “height of brain drain” in Nigerian university system. However, in general terms, the federal universities are more autonomous and better funded than the state universities which are said to be grossly under-funded (Clark and Sedgwick, 2004).

Currently, Nigeria runs a multi-party system. The civilian governments had placed in motion some reforms in the university system. Some of the reforms include: allowing private-sector participation and re-opening of the National Open University in 2001 to

widen access, reviewing of the Minimum Academic Standard, and granting of greater degree of autonomy to federal universities in order to hold them accountable to their students and the public (Okebukola, 2005). The incumbent Executive Secretary of NUC, Professor Julius Okojie (2008, p.28) summarised the history and goal of the National Universities Commission with regard to the universities in the paragraph below:

“Taking a cursory look at the history of higher education – particularly university education in Nigeria, we can easily know where we are coming from, where we have passed through and where we are today. A number of scholars in Nigeria had the privilege of passing through the system when the universities in the country rubbed shoulders with the best in the world; when high quality expatriates academics desired to be in the scholarly environment made possible by our ivory towers; when foreign university were eager to forge collaborative links with lecturers in Nigerian universities and when our students had no problem getting placements abroad for graduate studies. The goal of the National Universities Commission is to get Nigerian Universities to levels that are comparable to if not surpass the enviable level of the past” (Okojie, 2008, p.28).

### **1.10 Outline of the Study**

The study is made up six chapters as follows:

Chapter one introduces the study by providing its general background, statement of the problems, research aims and objectives. It further contains the research questions, scope/delimitation of the study, the significance of the study and summary of methodology. The cultural, historical and political contexts of the research are also provided in this chapter.

Chapter two provides information on the historical evolution of the university system in Nigeria, pointing out the various perceived obstacles to academic staff commitment and university performance. It starts by providing background on Nigeria then gives a review of development of its education system and the goals, successes and challenges of its university system.

Chapter three reviews the literature on working conditions, motivation, organizational commitment and performance. It reveals the role of employee working conditions as incentives that would motivate staff into higher performance in any human organization and as such its relevance and application to the study of academic staff and university performance in Nigerian. The conditions are also reviewed as important factors that can

affect the organizational commitment of academic staff. The conceptual framework of the study is presented after this.

Chapter four explains the methodology of the research. It presents the paradigmatic position of the research, its design, research strategy, method of data collection, population and sampling, reliability and validity of the research instruments, and ethical consideration. Another section of the chapter reveals the outcome of the preliminary interview conducted before the larger scale research.

Chapter five serves to present, interpret, analyze and discuss the findings of the study.

Chapter six deals with summary, conclusion, recommendations, limitations and suggested areas for further research.

The rest of report contains references and appendices of research instruments.

### **Summary of Chapter**

For organizations such as universities to achieve their goals they need motivated and committed workforce. Working conditions is seen as a reward to an employee, and his value for different rewards at work affects his motivation, commitment and performance of the organization (Ukaegbu, 2000; Ajila and Abiola, 2004). These values may be affected by the social and cultural background of the employee (Porters, Steers and Mowday, 1975; Ovadje and Muogboh, 2009). Education is necessary for the economic and social development of a society. University education is the highest level of education. It therefore represents the highest hope for this societal development. Several factors are perceived as instrumental to what is regarded as “crisis” in the Nigerian university system. These internal and external factors led to many problems in the universities including the massive exit of the academics from the university system in the process of brain drain (Jega, 1995; Nwabueze, 1995; Moja, 2000; Dabalen, Oni and Adekola, 2000; Saint et al, 2003; Okobukola, 2010). Several reforms had been put in place by successive Nigerian governments to redress the problems in the universities. However, not much is known about the feelings of the academics about their current conditions of work and how well the universities had performed in the various areas of their mandates. Equally nothing is known about what the academics from Nigeria would regard as important considerations for them to remain in the university system. Hence, the research question: “what and how

did the perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and university performance in Nigeria evolve, and what can be done to improve it?” The academic staff from the federal, state and private universities in Nigeria are covered in the study. The study would be significant in providing a framework on which Nigerian academics build their expectations from work. The achievement of these expectations is believed to have implication on their willingness to remain and help the universities achieve their goals.

Nigeria is a multi-cultural, multi-religious and politically diverse (Woolman, 2001; Saint, Hartnett and Strassner, 2003; Federal Republic of Nigeria website). Therefore, Nigerian academics are likely to have values divided across these lines. As a former British colony, coupled with contacts with Islamic and European missionaries, the Islamic and western education are present, with the former predominant in the Northern part of the country and the latter predominant in the southern part of the country (Ifemeje, 1979c). The only higher institution before its independence in 1960 was the University College Ibadan (Fafunwa, 1971; Ifemeje, 1979a). Nigeria had a prolonged period of military rule before returning to democratic governance. The period of military intervention in the political landscape of the country, coupled with the decline in oil boom, and harsh economic policies of IMF and the World Bank is believed to have contributed in no small measure to the beginning of the problems in the university system (Jega, 1995; Yaqub, 2007). In the next chapter, review of the history of higher education in Nigeria is presented.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **THE HISTORY OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN NIGERIA**

#### **2.1. Introduction:**

This chapter presents the history of university education in Nigeria, drawing out a range of issues that have shaped events in university education delivery in the country. It starts by briefly describing in section 2.2, the evolutionary trend of university education in Nigeria, its regulatory framework and enrolment into the system. Section 2.3 discusses the university enrolment and the admission body. Section 2.4 discusses the university work force and in section 2.5 literatures on sources of funding of the universities are highlighted. Section 2.6 deals with the goal of university education in Nigeria, success areas of the universities and key challenges in meeting up these goals. In section 2.7, the incentives in the universities are discussed and section 2.8 shed some light on the crux of the Government-Union disagreement over the years. Section 2.9 summarizes the conclusion from the chapter.

#### **2.2 The Evolution of Universities in Nigeria, Regulatory framework and Enrolment.**

The history of higher education in Nigeria is believed to have started with the founding of Yaba High College in 1932 (Ifemeje, 1979a). Later, the establishment of the University College at Ibadan in 1948 absorbed the students of the Yaba Higher College (Fafunwa, 1971; Ifemeje, 1979a; Jibril, 2003). The University College Ibadan later became University of Ibadan, having become a full-fledged university in 1962 after the country's independence in 1960 (Ifemeje, 1979b; Babalola, Jaiyeoba and Okediran, 2007). The University of Nigeria, Nsukka was established by the then Eastern Region Government of the country in 1960 (Ifemeje, 1979b), the year of the country's independence.

By implication, the University of Nigeria, Nsukka was the first full-fledged autonomous indigenous Nigerian university. More universities were established after the country's independence in 1960. In 1962, the University of Lagos and the University of Ile-Ife were established in the South-Western Region, while the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria was established in the Northern region (Ajetomobi and Ayanwale, n.d; Clark and Sedgwick, 2004; NUC, 2010). The University of Benin was established in 1970 (NUC, 2010). The period, 1960-1970 is regarded as the first phase of university development in Nigeria and the six universities established this period are regarded as 'first generation' universities.

Demand for participation in higher education in Nigeria increased resulting in the establishment of more universities by federal and state governments with active participation of non-governmental agencies, communities and individuals (Udey et al, 2009). According to these authors, the four regional universities were taken over by the Federal Government in 1975, with the establishment of seven new federal universities and about sixteen state-owned and federal polytechnics between 1975 and 1977. The six universities established by the federal government from 1975-1980 are regarded as 'second generation' universities while those universities established between 1980 and early 1990 are called 'third generation' universities; the fourth generation universities are those founded from 1991 to date (Ajayi and Ekundayo, 2008).

More federal and state-owned universities evolved during the second republic era (1979-1983). During this period, states were empowered to set up universities. The period during the fourth republic, from 1999 to date, individuals or private providers are allowed ownerships of universities (Okebukola, 2010; Ajadi, 2010a). Writing on 50 years of the Nigerian university system in 2010, Professor Peter Okebukola, the immediate past Chief Executive of the country's National Universities Commission (NUC), noted that the system has been adjudged the most expansive in Africa, having 104 institutions and over 1.5 million enrolments. His account further pointed to the fact that the total staff strength of the universities as at 2008 was 30,309 out of which only 3041 were professors and only 320 of the professors were female.

The Private universities were allowed into the Nigerian university education system in response to massive demand for university access by students and to meet the country's need for high-level manpower requirement which the public universities could not sustain (FME, 2003; Osagie, 2009; Ajadi, 2010a).



**Table 2.1: List of Federal Universities in Nigerian and year of establishment.**

<b>SN</b>	<b>Federal Universities</b>	<b>Year established</b>
1	Abubakar Tafawa Balewa University, Bauchi	1988
2	Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria	1962
3	Bayero University, Kano	1975
4	Federal University of Petroleum Resources, Effurum	2007
5	Federal University of Technology, Yola	1988
6	Federal University of Technology, Akure	1981
7	Federal Univrsity of Technology, Minna	1982
8	Federal University of Technology, Owerri	1980
9	Michael Okpara University of Agriculture, Umudike	1992
10	National Open University of Nigeria, Lagos	2002
11	Nigerian Defense Academy, Kaduna	1985
12	Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka	1992
13	Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife	1962
14	University of Abuja, Gwagwalada	1988
15	University of Agriculture, Abeokuta	1988
16	University of Agriculture, Makurdi	1988
17	University of Benin	1970
18	University of Calabar	1975
19	University of Ibadan	1948
20	University of Ilorin	1975
21	University of Jos	1975
22	University of Lagos	1962

23	University of Maiduguri	1975
24	University of Nigeria, Nsukka	1960
25	University of Port Harcourt	1975
26	University of Uyo	1991
27	Usman Danfodiyo University	1975

**Source:** National Universities Commission (2010)

**Table 2.2: List of State Universities in Nigeria and Year of establishment**

SN	State Universities	Year established
1	Abia State University, Uturu	1980
2	Adamawa State University, Mubi	2002
3	Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba	1999
4	Akwa Ibom State University of Technology Uyo	2004
5	Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma	1980
6	Anambra State University of Science & Technology, Uli	2000
7	Benue State University, Makurdi	1992
8	Bukar Abba Ibrahim University, Damaturu	2006
9	Cross River State University of Science & Technology, Calabar	2004
10	Delta State University, Abraka	1992
11	Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki	2000
12	Ekiti State University of Science & Technology	2009
13	Enugu State University of Science & Technology, Enugu	1981
14	Gombe State University, Gombe	2004
15	Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai, Niger State	2005
16	Imo State University, Owerri	1992
17	Kaduna State University, Kaduna	2004
18	Kano State University of Technology, Wudil	2000
19	Kebbi State University, Kebbi	2006

20	Kogi State University Anyigba	1999
21	Kwara State University, Ilorin	2009
22	Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomoso	1990
23	Lagos State University Ojo, Lagos.	1983
24	Nasarawa State University, Keffi	2002
25	Niger Delta University, Yenagoa	2000
26	Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye	1982
27	Ondo State University of Science & Technology, Okitipupa	2008
28	Osun State University, Oshogbo	2006
29	Plateau State University, Bokokos	2005
30	Rivers State University of Science & Technology	1979
31	Sokoto State University, Sokoto	2009
32	Tai Solarin Univ. of Education, Ijebu-Ode	2005
33	Taraba State University, Jalingo	2008
34	Umaru Musa Yar'Adua University, Katsina	2006
35	University of Ado-Ekiti	1988
36	University of Education, Ikere Ekiti	2008

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**Source:** National Universities Commission (2010)

**Table 2.3: List of Private Universities in Nigeria and year of establishment.**

<b>SN</b>	<b>Private Universities</b>	<b>Year established</b>
1	Achievers University, Owo	2007
2	Afe Babalola University, Ado-Ekiti - Ekiti State	2009
3	African University of Science & Technology, Abuja	2007
4	Ajayi Crowther University, Ibadan	2005
5	Al-Hikmah University, Ilorin	2005
6	American University of Nigeria, Yola	2003
7	Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo	1999
8	Bells University of Technology, Otta	2005
9	Benson Idahosa University, Benin City	2002
10	Bingham University, New Karu	2005
11	Bowen University, Iwo	2001
12	Caleb University, Lagos	2007
13	Caritas University, Enugu	2005
14	CETEP City University, Ibadan	2005

15	Covenant University Ota	2002
16	Crawford University Igbesa	2005
17	Crescent University, Abeokuta	2005
18	Fountain University, Oshogbo	2007
19	Godfrey Okoye University, Ugwuomu-Nike - Enugu State	2009
20	Igbinedion University Okada	1999
21	Joseph Ayo Babalola University, Ikeji-Arakeji	2006
22	Katsina University, Katsina	2005
23	Lead City University, Ibadan	2005
24	Madonna University, Okija	1999
25	Nigerian-Turkish Nile University, Abuja Nigerian-Turkish Nile University, Abuja	2009
26	Novena University, Ogume	2005
27	Obong University, Obong Ntak	2007
28	Oduduwa University, Ipetumodu - Osun State	2009
29	Pan African University, Lagos	2002
30	Paul University, Awka - Anambra State	2009

31	Redeemer's University, Mowe	2005
32	Renaissance University, Enugu	2005
33	Rhema University, Obeama-Asa - Rivers State	2009
34	Salem University, Lokoja	2007
35	Tansian University, Umunya	2007
36	University of Mkar, Mkar	2005
37	Veritas University, Abuja	2007
38	Wellspring University, Evbuobanosa - Edo State	2009
39	Wesley Univ. of Science & Tech., Ondo	2007
40	Western Delta University, Oghara	2007
41	Wukari Jubilee University,	2005

**Source:** National Universities Commission (2010)

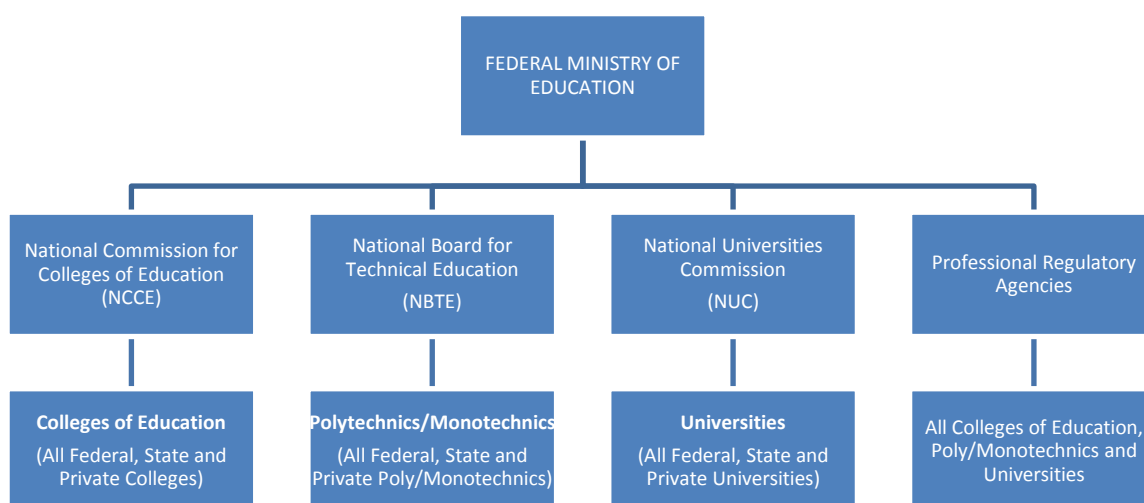
### **2.2.1 The Regulation of Universities in Nigeria**

The 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and other relevant laws of the National Assembly gave the Federal Government the exclusive power to determine national minimum educational standards throughout the country with respect to the provision of basic, secondary and tertiary education in Nigeria. Based on this mandate, the Federal Government is responsible for the development of curriculum for basic, secondary and tertiary education in Nigeria and for the enforcement of national minimum educational standards (called Quality Assurance or QA for short) throughout Nigeria (FME, 2003). The Federal Ministry of Education performs these functions on behalf of the Federal Government. To discharge the functions effectively, the Federal Ministry of Education established agencies that develop curriculum and ensure QA for the various levels of the

education system. The National Universities Commission (NUC) established in 1974 develops curriculum and QA in the universities. The National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) pursues goal of quality assurance in teacher education (NCCE Online). On the other hand, the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) is “specifically created to handle all aspects of Technical and Vocational Education falling outside University Education” (NBTE website).

The overriding functions of the Federal Government in terms of curriculum and QA exercised through the Federal Ministry of Education and its agencies cover all educational institutions in Nigeria irrespective of their ownership. For instance, at the university level, it means that for a university to operate legally in Nigeria, it must be licensed and accredited by the NUC.

**Fig. 2.1: Regulation of Tertiary Education in Nigeria**



The QA function for tertiary education in Nigeria is exercised not only by the NCCE, NBTE and NUC but also by the professional regulatory agencies of the various professions in Nigeria. Most of the agencies, especially for Law, Medicine, Teaching,

Pharmacy, Computer Science, Engineering, etc. are equally owned by the Federal Government and established by Act of the National Assembly with the mandate to ensure adequate professional preparation of candidates before their registration for professional practice. Three of such professional regulatory agencies are agencies of the Federal Ministry of Education. These are the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN), Computer Professionals Registration Council of Nigeria (CPRCN) and the Librarians Registrations Council of Nigeria. The others are agencies of the Federal Ministries that supervise the practice of the various vocations. For instance, the Council for the Regulation of Engineering in Nigeria (COREN) is an agency of the Federal Ministry of Works; the Medical and Dental Council of Nigeria (MDCN) and the Pharmacists Council of Nigeria (PCN) are of the Federal Ministry of Health while the Legal Council on Education (LCE) belongs to the Federal Ministry of Justice. These agencies collaboratively with the NCCE, NBTE or NUC as the case may be carry out QA functions relating to the curriculum development and delivery in their respective specializations. For instance, the TRCN works with the NCCE to ensure quality in all Colleges of Education in Nigeria and with the NUC to ensure quality in the production of Education graduates from all universities in Nigeria.

For the purpose of making, evaluating and streamlining the National Minimum Educational Standards, the Federal Ministry of Education in conjunction with all States of the Federation established a National Council on Education (NCE) which is now the highest policy-making organ in Education in Nigeria. Its decisions go directly to the Federal Executive Council (the Federal Cabinet) for ratification and where ratified, such policies are fully backed by the Federal Government in terms of funding, legislation, and political support. The NCE, which has the Minister of Education as chairman, is composed of representatives of all major players or stakeholders in education in Nigeria, including the state Commissioners for Education.

The NCE is, in turn, assisted in its function by a body of professional officers from the Federal and State ministries of education known as the Joint Consultative Committee on Education (JCCE). With its own Consultative Reference Committees, the JCCE acts as essential machinery for feedback on federal policy in education (FME, 2003).

It may be important to give further insight into the powers and functions of the NUC as the agency regulating university education in Nigeria. The National Universities Commission Act of 15<sup>th</sup> January 1974, established the NUC (NUC Act, 1974). It is an



important statutory organ in the development and management of university education in Nigeria. Its main functions include:

- i. Granting approval for all academic programmes run in Nigerian universities;
- ii. Granting approval for the establishment of all higher educational institutions offering degree programmes in Nigerian universities;
- iii. Ensure quality assurance of all academic programmes offered in Nigerian universities; and
- iv. Channel for all external support to the Nigerian universities (NUC website).

## **2.3 University Enrolment and the Joint Admission and Matriculation**

### **Board (JAMB).**

Admission of students into all public universities and most of the private ones in Nigeria is centralized. The Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) of Nigeria was established in 1978 to regulate admission of students into Nigerian universities, a function that was extended later in 1988 to include admissions into Polytechnics and Colleges of Education (Ojerinde, 2009; JAMB, 2010). The Board which is an agency of the Federal Ministry of Education conducts a national examination to determine candidates who are suitably qualified for admission (Ofoegbu and Ojogwu, 2006). Based on the scores of candidates in the examination and their choice of universities, the JAMB in conjunction with the universities, place the successful candidates in the appropriate universities. It is notable in Nigeria that the universities are unable to admit even many of the candidates who pass the JAMB examinations owing to limited number of universities. Enrolment of students into the universities was reported to have risen from 1,395 in 1960 to over 250,000 by 1998/89 session (Mkpa, 2010). Also, while over three million candidates sat for the JAMB examination in 2009, the universities did not admit more than 200,000 successful candidates. The situation has created real problems in the management of university education in Nigeria which is compelling the Federal Government and the National Council on Education to be working towards ways of improving the situation. One of the ways was the introduction of the National Open University of Nigeria (FME, 2003). This admission situation is also responsible for the mass migration of Nigerian students to foreign countries in search of opportunities for university education.

Membership of the Board comprises of the chairman, representatives of universities, colleges of education, Polytechnics, Conference of Principals of Secondary schools, Federal Ministry of Education, Registrar of West African Examination Council (WAEC)

or his representative, Executive Secretaries of NUC, NBTE and NCCE or their representatives, and the Registrar to the Board (Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board Act, Chapter 193 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria). The admission examinations organized by the Board is currently renamed as the Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME).

Student enrolment into the universities has been on the increase since 1960. Ogunu's (1990) account of the development of university education in Nigeria and other writers like Okebukola (2010) attests to this fact. Ogunu recorded that as at 1960, student enrolment in two of Nigeria's universities of Ibadan and Nsukka was 1,399 and increased to 2406 in 1961. The total student university enrolment in the country for the 1962/63 academic session was recorded as 3646 and rose rapidly to 8,888 in 1966/67 session. The incidence of Nigeria civil war of 1967 to 1970 was said to have brought a reduction in this increase, but it later picked up again after the war, doubling every four years or five years between the period 1970 and 1985. It is reported that the university system has enrolled over 700,000 students by 2005 (Uvah, 2005).

**Table 2.4: Nigerian universities Total Enrolment and Output by Year (2000/01-2004/05) for 59 universities.**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Total Enrolment</b>	<b>Graduate Output (Bachelor)</b>	<b>Graduate Output (Post Graduate Diploma)</b>	<b>Graduate Output (Masters)</b>	<b>Graduate Output (Doctorate)</b>
2000/01	358,758	47,791	10089	10,820	690
2001/02	444,949	58,305	6767	15,151	721
2002/03	606104	70,361	5410	14,056	752
2003/04	727,408	50,419	5595	12,492	794
2004/05	780,001	26,042	4651	8,385	428

**Source:** FME 2007. Statistics of Education in Nigeria: 1999-2005, pp.83-89.

**Table 2.5: Number of Academic Staff in Nigerian University System from 2001 to 2005.**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
2000/01	18867	15289	3578
2001/02	18426	15067	3359
2002/03	22046	17936	4110
2003/04	23871	19739	4132
2004/05	23535	22858	4624

**Source:** FME 2007. Statistics of Education in Nigeria: 1999-2005, p.95.

#### **2.4 The University Workforce: Academic and Non-Academic**

Like any other organization especially in the less developed countries of Africa, there is strong presence of trade unions in Nigerian universities. The three prominent unions here are the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) representing the teaching staff, the Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU) representing the senior non-teaching staff and the Non-Academic Staff Union representing the interest of junior non-teaching staff. Over the years these unions especially ASUU have fought for the interest and welfare of their members and university education system in Nigeria. In doing this, the unions had on several occasions been at loggerhead with the university authorities and the government. Most of the issues of agitation bothered mainly on funding of the university system, staff conditions of service, university autonomy and other issues (Ekong, 2002; Onyeonoru, n.d, 2009; ASUU, 2004; ASUU, 2009, 2010b; Adeniji and Adekunjo, 2010). For example, ASUU (2004) through its National President, Fashina, lamented that the funding of education has remained low and that state governments were not funding their universities to function decently. It accused the NUC of subverting university autonomy, encroaching into the functions of the senate and academic research committees of universities. Ekong (2002) observed that the conditions of service for university staff in Nigeria worsened after the civil war leading to strikes and boycott of classes.

#### **2.5 The Funding of Universities:**

There are two major sources of fund for running a university in Nigeria – external and internal (Okebukola, 2003). According to Obasi (2007), the federal government owned universities are run based on a “tuition-free” policy since mid-seventies, while the state government owned universities, charge fees. The state universities emerged by 1979

(Akpotu and Akpochafo, 2009). For public universities, the external source comes from annual recurrent and capital grants from the government (Omorie and Hartnett, 1995; Okebukola, 2003). As reported by Okebukola, this external fund accounts on the average, about “75% of total income of a federal or state university”.

The primary source of revenue for Federal Universities in Nigeria is the Federal Government while the main funding for the state universities is the various state governments. Grants are made to the federal universities through the NUC (Omorie and Hartnett, 1995; Ogwuche, 2008) that now distributes the allocations for the various universities. According to Omorie and Hartnett, the federal government through the NUC accounted for 86% of total income of the federal universities in 1990/91 and 1991/92; 93% in 1992/93; and 96% for 1993/94 and 1994/95.

Private sector or non-governmental organizations are part of university funding in Nigeria. In this group are individuals, communities, voluntary organizations, international external grants, private and multinational companies.

Beneficiaries of the university education also contribute to funding of the universities (Nnoli, 2003; Abdu, 2003). The funding comes in form of fees charged for various activities such as registration fees and examination fees. However, there is variation in the reliance of different universities on tuition fees as a means of funding as there is variation in the number of candidates registered for the sub-degrees and post-graduate programmes of the universities. Those with higher numbers benefit more from tuition income (Omorie and Hartnett, 1995). The local communities where the institutions are located are also seen as participating in the funding of the universities especially by providing the land for construction of different properties of the universities. The multinational companies provide scholarship and other assistance as part of their social responsibilities.

Investment of some universities in some ventures also provide additional income to some universities though at varying degrees. For example, Omorie and Hartnett noted that proceeds from staff and students accommodations, interest earned on bank deposits, and business operations represented 6% and 3% of total revenue of federal universities in 1991/92 and 1992/93 respectively. Some universities also engage in consultancy services, undertake commissioned researches and build staff schools in order to get additional fund outside government subvention (Abdu, 2003).

Also of note is the role of the Education Task Fund in provision of higher education in Nigeria. The fund was established in 1993 in response to the agitation by ASUU on the

deteriorating condition of educational infrastructure and decline in education quality in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Nnoli, 2003; Okebukola, 2003). One of its main objectives is to provide funding for educational facilities and infrastructural development. In general terms, although the funding pattern seems to show an increase, in real terms, the public sector universities are believed to experience decline in resource provision (Uvah, 2005b; Moja, 2000; Saint et al, 2003). Such observation has also been made by Abdu (2003, p.15) who observed that “the high funding has not absolved the sector from numerous problems”.

Licensing of private universities in Nigeria effectively commenced in 1999 with the inauguration of the democratic government of President Olusegun Obasanjo and its empowerment of the NUC to ensure strict scrutiny of facilities of applicants of private universities (Obasi, 2007). This exercise is part of the procedural guidelines that has to be met before granting approval for commencement of academic activities by the private universities. This procedure, often, has not been followed before establishment of the public universities due to “political exigencies”, but after they have met the same conditions, are accorded Federal Government recognition (Uvah, 2005b). As observed by this author, the emergence of private universities can be appreciated because of the inability of the public universities to cope with admission pressure. The majority of these private universities in Nigeria, he noted, are owned by religious bodies mainly Christians.

For private universities, their recurrent and capital costs are met with subventions from their proprietors, with tuition and sundry fees forming the major part of the subvention (Okebukola, 2003; Uvah, 2005b). As a result of their small size and ability to charge sufficient fees to cover their operational costs and also make a profit, the private universities are believed to have greater financial stability than the public sector universities (Uvah, 2005b).

## **2.6 Goals of Nigerian Universities and Challenges.**

The goals of the Nigerian universities stated in Section 8 of the country’s National Policy on Education (NPE, 2004) are as follow, to:

- i. Contribute to national development through high level relevant manpower training;
- ii. Develop and inculcate proper values for the survival of the individual and the society;

- iii. Develop the intellectual capability of individuals to understand and appreciate their local and external environments;
- iv. Acquire both physical and intellectual skills which will enable individuals to be self-reliant and useful members of the society;
- v. Promote and encourage scholarship and community service;
- vi. Forge and cement national unity; and
- vii. Promote national and international understanding and interaction.

The same policy gave a list of avenues through which the universities shall pursue these goals. These are;

- i Teaching;
- ii. Research and development (R&D);
- iii. Virile staff development programmes;
- iv. Generation and dissemination of knowledge;
- v. A variety of modes of programmes including full-time, part-time, block-release, day-release, sandwich, etc;
- vi. Access to training funds such as those provided by the Industrial Training Fund (ITF);
- vii. Students Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES);
- viii. Maintenance of minimum educational standards through appropriate agencies;
- ix. Inter-institutional co-operation;
- x. Dedicated service to the community through extra-mural and extension services.

It was observed by Albert (2010) that some gaps do exist in the discharge of the mandates of the universities in Nigeria. Regarding teaching as the first function of a university, he pointed out that the “consistent unemployability” (p.492) of graduating students from the universities evidenced by their lack of skills suggests that there is something wrong with the system. One of the identified problems has to do with poor curriculum development which is hardly reviewed in the light of changing global developmental strategies. In the area of research, the gaps are in the area of quality of PhD theses which is believed to be falling, reduced interest in research by Nigerian professors who, on attaining the

professorial cadre tend to concentrate more on teaching alone thus reducing the quality of mentoring available to upcoming scholars.

The former chief executive of Nigeria's National Universities Commission (NUC), Professor Peter Okebukola (2008) was of the view that for the Nigerian university system to receive early placement in the top global ranking of universities, it has to address seven imperatives. These were:

- i. Maintenance of stable academic calendar;
- ii. Stimulating a vibrant research culture;
- iii. Improvement of facilities for teaching and research;
- iv. Compliance with carrying capacity standards and avoidance of over-enrolment;
- v. Extermination of cultism;
- vi. Encouraging of universities to focus on programmes where they have strength;
- vii. Strong international linkage with foreign universities.

### **2.6.1 Key Successes of the Universities**

Despite the generalized opinion on the decay in Nigerian university education system, it is necessary to point out some of its achievements. Between 1960 and the mid-80s Nigeria had a well-developed university system comparable to highly rated universities all over the world, with institutions like the University of Ibadan and Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria earning global recognition for research in health and agriculture respectively (Saint et al, 2003; Okebukola, 2010). In fact, Okebukola pointed out that "between 1965 and 1970, Nigeria had the highest contribution to the international literature in the areas of science, engineering, medicine, social sciences and arts. It also had exemplary teaching quality, community and extension services.

From Nigeria's independence in 1960 to date, Nigerian university education sector has witnessed much expansion both in the number of universities and academic enrolment. At independence in 1960, only one tertiary institution existed in the country, that is, the University of Ibadan, which according to Okebukola had about 1000 students and 300 staff. He further stated that between 1960 and 2010, there had been rapid increase in the number of universities and enrolment. This was evident with the representation of 104 universities by their Vice-Chancellors at the 25<sup>th</sup> meeting of the Association of Vice-

Chancellors of Nigerian Universities held on 20<sup>th</sup> April, 2010, at Osun State University, Oshogbo. As at 2005, the Federal Ministry of Education recorded a total undergraduate enrolment of 780,001 in the various universities in the country; with the total number of academic staff in the system put at 23,535 (Federal Ministry of Education, 2007). In a paper presented at a session of the Council for Higher Education Accreditation in 2008, the incumbent Executive Secretary of NUC, Professor Julius A. Okojie indicated the current total enrolment in the universities to be 1,096,312, and total staff as 99,464 comprising 27,394 academic staff and 72,070 non-teaching staff.

**Table 2.6: Students enrolment in Nigerian Universities (2006/2007)**

Proprietorship	Sub degree	Undergraduate	Post graduate	Total	Percentage
Federal	49,999	50,3154	57,300	610453	55.7
State	8,734	419,901	19,459	448094	40.9
Private	3,57	36,641	767	37765	3.4
Total	59,090	959,696	77,526	1,096,312	
Percentage	5.4	87.5	7.1		100
Grand Total		1,096,312			

**Source:** Okojie (2008, p.4)

**Table 2.7: Staff strength in Nigerian Universities (2006/2007)**

<b>Academic staff</b>	
<b>Rank</b>	<b>Total</b>
Professor/Reader	5,483 (20%)
Senior Lecturer	6,475 (23.6%)
Lecturer 1 and below	15,436 (56.4%)
Total	27,394
<b>Non-teaching staff</b>	
<b>Rank</b>	<b>Total</b>
Senior non-academic	30,275 (42%)
Junior	41,795 (58%)
Total	72,070
Grand total all staff	<b>99,464</b>

**Source:** Okojie (2008, p.4.)



Another area of achievement is in the modernization and enrichment of curriculum (Nnoli, 2001). In this regard, knowledge in the subject areas of mathematics, chemistry, physics, biology, pharmacy, medicine, engineering etc., compares favourably with other counterparts in other countries and is evident in the ability of the Nigerian Post-Graduate students in other countries to compete favourably with their colleagues. Saint, Hartnett and Strassner (2003, p.4), on a study of Nigeria's higher education system indicated as follows: "by 1980, Nigeria had established a well-regarded higher education system offering instruction at an international standard in a number of disciplinary areas". The above comment goes to show how much regard the university education in the country had during this period. Further, Banjo (2006) noted that in terms of broadening of curriculum base, Nigerian universities are paying more attention to this requirement by making provision for the co-existence of specialization and a broad-based programme. The mandatory General Studies course for all students in the universities, for an example, is seen as an attempt to enrich the students' experience.

The emergence of various organized groups in the university sector is also one of the key achievements of the universities. These groups act as pressure groups to ensure that things work well in the system for the purpose of achieving the mandates of the universities, and shaping the nation's policies for education and democracy in general (Nnoli, 2001). Such groups include the Committee of Vice-Chancellors, the Committee of Pro-Chancellors of universities, Alumni Associations, Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), Non-Academic Staff Union of Universities (NASU), Senior Staff Association of Universities (SSANU), National Association of Nigerian Students (NANS), etc. It is also pertinent to recognize the modernization of teaching materials, facilities and methods in the nation's universities. There has been great awareness in computer literacy and other digital facilities in the delivery of knowledge.

### **2.6.2 Key Challenges of the Universities:**

The Nigerian university system has suffered a lot of setbacks. Many authors have identified the challenges facing the system in the discharge of its mandate to range from poor leadership and governance resulting in ineffectiveness and incompetence (e.g. Ekong, 2002; Okebukola, 2005; Okeocha, 2008; Ebuara et al, 2009) to inadequate funding, lack of access to university education by secondary school leavers and poor quality of university graduates (e.g. Nwabueze, 1995; Dabalen, Oni and Adekola, 2000); politicization and proliferation of academic programmes that could not be sustained (e.g. Omoregie and Hartnett, 1995), lack of incentives for staff, inadequate infrastructure,

university autonomy issue, increasing student enrolment, brain drain, incessant strikes and conflict between unions and management among others (NUC, 1994; Nwabueze, 1995; Moja, 2000; Ekong, 2002; Saint, Hartnett and Strassner, 2003; FME, 2003; Ogwuche, 2008; Ebuara, et al, 2009, etc.). Many of these challenges had been long standing issues which date back to periods of military administration in the country.

(i) **Poor Leadership and Governance:** Ekong (2002) citing Alubo (1999) observed that prolonged military rule succeeded in militarizing erstwhile civil structure, including the universities. Ekong reported that in a study conducted in 2000/2001 in 11 Nigerian universities to investigate the management styles adopted by the Vice-Chancellors (VCs) during the period 1992- 1999, it was found that majority of them appeared to have used a dictatorial/authoritarian management style. Further analysis indicated that in 8 out of the 11 universities studied, the principal officers scored their administration as authoritarian. Also, the analysis showed a positive correlation between management styles and stability, staff satisfaction, and equitable access, while there was a negative correlation between management styles and average alienation, productivity, number of students, number of academic staff and non-academic staff. This account is in consonance with the observation of Okecha (2008) who reported that the diminishing development in some of the universities could be traced to the hostile administrative system in which some Vice Chancellors are considered to exhibit dictatorial management styles. The above observation seems to be confirmed by the former NUC Chief Executive, Professor Peter Okebukola (2005) while presenting a paper on the Principles guiding current reforms in Nigerian universities. He linked part of the crises in the system in the past years to ineffective governance and management.

Lack of accountability in the management of government facilities have also been identified as an issue which has to do with leadership. It has been observed that most universities do not put much thought into their project planning probably because, they take it for granted that financial support will always come from government. In this regard, Aminu (1988) observed that many universities tied their capital fund to projects designed without proper planning and which had remained uncompleted.

Omoriegie and Hartnett (1995) observed that there was insufficient control among the universities on the establishment of departments with some of them established around a personality. Further, some of the universities established new programmes on the motive of prestige or around their special area of interest without regard to proper planning and invariably sustainability. The implication of all these is that much of the university grant

from National Universities Commission is tied up in these areas contributing to financial stress in the system. This is in line with the observation of Ebuara et al (2009) who noted that this creates massive influx of unprepared students who are admitted without adequate resources to take care of their special needs. They also cited the Nigerian Tribune of 17<sup>th</sup> June, 2007 that traced the poor state of Nigerian universities to ignorant leaders who misappropriate the revenue allocation meant for the sustainable development of higher institutions.

**(ii) Lack of Access and Poor Quality of University Graduates:**

With regard to the problem of access to the universities in Nigeria, Okebukola (2005) had this to say:

*“The entire university system in Nigeria can only accommodate about fifteen percent of those seeking admission. The situation will worsen when graduates of the Universal Basic Education Scheme (UBES) come knocking on the doors of the universities”* (Okebukola, 2005, p.34).

The high demand for admission into the universities in Nigeria was also recognized by Jega (1995, p.252) who noted that comparatively, enrolment figure in Nigerian universities “represents more than half of the university students of Africa south of the sahara”. In order to widen access and equal opportunity for university education, the Federal Government has taken such measures as the introduction of an admission quota system to address regional and class imbalances (Federal Ministry of Education, 2003; Saint et al, 2003; Okecha, 2008; Ebuara et al, 2009). The policy of quota system implies that students must be admitted from each state of the country even if they are not among the best students in the Joint Admission and Matriculation Examinations. This is to ensure that the university system gives fairly equal opportunity to students from all parts of the country to receive university education. However, the quota system is believed to have a negative implication on the quality of output of universities. For instance, Tetey (2006) reported in his study of African universities that low quality of students entering the institutions was frustrating to the lecturers.

The admission of candidates into the universities in Nigeria lies within the regulatory authority of the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board, which people believe places emphasis on quota at the expense of merit for admission (Okecha, 2008). This is because, in order to provide equitable access to limited spaces, provision for admission is based on some formula that takes into consideration residents of the immediate geographical or “catchment” area, educationally disadvantaged students; admission at the Vice

Chancellor's discretion and only 40% is left on the basis of merit (Saint et al 2003, Moja, 2000). It was further observed by Moja (2000) and Okecha (2008) that in order to gain access to the limited places, unwholesome practices such as cheating in the examinations, bribery for admission, and manipulation of examination scores have become pronounced.

Adeyemi (2001, cited in Saint, Harnett and Strasser, 2003, p.12) evaluated the equality of access and "catchment" area admission policy and discovered that there were "significant differences in academic performance between students admitted on merit and those admitted on other criteria. Also, "the drop-out and repetition rate for the latter group was three times higher than for the merit-based group". The major ethnic groups in the catchment areas dominate the universities in their areas (Adeyemi, 2001). This trend was believed to have affected the quality of graduates of the universities and hence, their status. However, one cannot really give a confirmatory statement as to the issue of quality or standard because of mix of factors that have been identified to be associated with it. For instance, Fagbulu (2003, p.2) writing on the problem of cost and financing of education observed that though reference has been made to falling standard of education in Nigeria due to problem of financing, this might be regarded as "relative assumption or at best a nostalgic comparison with the past" since there is no data to support the claim. On the other hand, Dabalen and Oni (2000) observed that though employers complain about quality of graduates from the universities, which were considered poor, however, they attribute the situation to quality of staff, learning resources and poor funding of the universities. These authors, while analyzing the labour market statistics observed that the unemployment rate for Nigerian university graduates might be around 25 percent and that their prospects for employment was worsened over time.

**(iii) Poor Incentive for University Staff and Quality:** Poor remuneration and lack of other basic incentives for employees in the universities are common issues in most literature on university administration in Nigeria. Lack of motivation and poor conditions of service of university workers have been identified by many writers as one of the key issues of Nigeria's university education (e.g. Longe Commission, 1990; NUC, 1994; Nwabueze, 1995; Saint et al, 2003; Okecha, 2008; ASUU, 2009; Osagie, 2009; Ekundayo and Ajayi, 2009). The Longe Commission of 1990 on the review of Nigeria's higher education reported poor salaries and conditions of staff in the tertiary institutions. The Commission noted that the conditions of service of staff in the tertiary institutions were not comparable to those in other sectors of the economy. These include such sectors like the organized private sector, banks and the health services personnel in the public service

(Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1991). Conditions of service have been one of the major issues that had caused confrontation between the various unions in the universities and the university administration and government. This had often resulted to strike action among the workers, bringing about distortion in the academic calendar. For instance, in a press conference in 2009, the President of ASUU, Professor Ukachukwu Awuzie gave reasons that led to the industrial dispute between the union and the Federal Government. One of them was the poor salary and non-salary conditions of service of the academic staff which he reported had over the years resulted in the loss of the country's best academics to other countries like Europe and America, including African countries like South Africa. In his own words, he pointed out that:

*“The need to make the conditions of service – salary and non-salary, attractive enough for Nigerian scholars to stay at home even though they are not doing as well as they would do if they were in Europe and America, was the major reason the negotiating committee agreed and even insisted that Nigerian academics should be paid the African average, i.e. the level of remuneration close to what obtains in the African countries to which Nigerian academics emigrate” (ASUU, 2009).*

Equally, the National President of the Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU), Piwuna (2006, p.148) noted that the reasons for most industrial unrest in the universities are varied but “almost always it is either disagreement between the staff and government or between staff and university managers over welfare matters”. The situation and its resultant low morale on staff have been linked to a lot of issues including poor quality of university graduates. Akindutire (2004 in Ekundayo and Ajayi, 2009); Saint et al (2003) also reported the relative low level of academic salary and the resultant “brain drain” of academic staff, which also prevented recruitment of new staff.

Other matters relating to incentive and motivation as reported by many authors include poor teaching and infrastructural facilities for teaching and research, inability of staff to benefit from development programmes locally and abroad, etc. For example, Ogwuche (2008) while investigating effects of funding on universities in Nigeria observed that, apart from the problem of funding, one of the major causes of crisis in the university system has to do with inadequate academic and non-academic facilities likes laboratories, studio, library stocks, hostel spaces and their effect on job satisfaction. Equally, Alo (1995) observed that some of the constraints on research and development at Nigerian universities include poor research facilities; inadequate human resources; poor linkage with the production system; inadequate funds, incentives, and motivation; and lack of clear-cut enabling policies.

**(iv) Funding:** The problem of funding of university education in Nigeria has been a nagging issue and one of the key crises and issues of misunderstanding between the unions and the Federal Government. Funding problems in the system have been reported by numerous authors such as Nwabueze, 1995; Abdu, 2003; Saint et al, 2003; ASUU, 2004; Yaqub, 2007; Ogwuche, 2008; Okecha, 2008; Osagie, 2009; Ekundayo and Ajayi, 2009. For instance, Abdu (2003, p.15) observed that financing of higher education in Nigeria had been “rosy” at the initial stage with the government having the political will to fund the institutions adequately. This was in the mid-1970s. However, the collapse of world oil price coupled with decline in petroleum output of the country resulted in the decline on its oil export revenue, pressure on its balance of payment, deterioration in its public financing, unemployment, etc. and made the country embark on Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) in 1986 (Anyanwu, 1992; Ayadi, Adegbite and Ayadi, 2008). SAP brought about devaluation of the Naira, the country’s currency and led to the depreciation of the money available to the universities by about 200% (Okebukola, 2010). Okebukola (2010) and also Abdu (2003) further observed that acceptance by African Leaders of the advice of economists (Breton Woods institutions - the World Bank and IMF) that funding of the education sector should not include the higher education sub-sector also reduced the quantity of fund made available to the universities. Consequently, the expatriates started going back to their countries as their salaries became non-competitive, and purchase of laboratory equipment and books with foreign exchange became a problem. As a result, decline in quality of education offered in the universities started setting in.

According to ASUU (2001, cited in Ogwuche, 2008), between 1994-2000, Nigeria has, on the average met only 10% of the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) benchmark of 26% of national budget for funding education in every country. The problem of funding was evident not only in the federal universities, but also in the state universities. Part of the observations made by ASUU at its 13<sup>th</sup> National Delegate Conference in 2004, as presented by its National President, Dr. Oladipo Fashana, was that state governments were not funding their universities to work decently.

Another scenario to the funding problem is the upsurge in enrolment for university education. In spite of the difficulties experienced in the 1980s, there has been of recent, though irregular, increases in fund allocation to the universities from 1992 to 2002 (Abdu, 2003 citing Okebukola, 2003), but this has remained inadequate to cater for their recurrent and capital expenditure, partly due to the massive enrolment of students. Abdu (2003,

p.15) noted that the high funding pattern has not absolved the universities of the numerous problems facing them, and that, it “falls short of the amount required especially in the areas of abandoned capital projects that litter all the Nigerian institutions and creation of more inducements and incentives for teachers in the sector”. Agreeing that funding of education in Nigeria had seen bad days, Fagbulu (2003, p.2) noted that the confusion about who is funding what has led to “a situation where the education system is fraught with decay in infrastructure and equipment, lack of motivation for teaching and learning and even policy implementation”.

Further on the issue of funding, Dabalen, Oni and Adekola (2000, p.2) were of the view that though persistent unrest and increase in anti-social behaviour tend to be the main issues that draw public attention regarding problems in the universities, “systemic under-funding and declining quality of higher education” is generally believed to have generated the phenomena. In the area of work environment, many of the universities lack adequate physical facilities and equipment to conduct their activities (Okebukola, 2005; Emodi cited by Oni, 2011). Emodi further identified very low installation and penetration of information technology and lack of top class foreign academics as some of the reasons why none of the universities in Nigeria were able to make the world list of good universities. Also, Ogwuche (2008) found that inadequate funding of Nigerian Universities resulted in poor quality of education, exodus of academic staff in the brain drain syndrome, incessant strike actions, dearth of facilities, cultism, poor and outdated Journals and obsolete teaching and research equipment.

#### **(v) University Autonomy:**

The problem of university autonomy and academic freedom has been an intense debate between several Nigerian governments and the universities. It was more pronounced during the military era and had been one of the major issues of dispute between the unions especially the ASUU and government (Ajayi and Awe, 2009; Ekundayo and Adedokun, 2009), an issue that seemed difficult to resolve. The problem of autonomy in the universities can be looked at in three broad areas considering the laws that set up the universities. According to Ajayi and Awe (2008), by virtue of the statutory provisions of Nigerian universities, they seem to have autonomy in three broad areas: academic autonomy, administrative autonomy, and financial autonomy. They observed that the statutes made provision for Council, its composition, life and functions; the Finance and General Purpose Committee; and the Senate. Provisions were also made for the Congregation; the Convocation; organization of academic work in the university;

Academic Boards; Boards of Studies; and Deans of teaching units. Further provisions were made for selection of certain principal officers of the university; creation of academic posts; appointment of academic staff and appointment of administrative and technical staff. Also, the Senate by virtue of the statutes is empowered to take charge of the academic activities of the universities including admission and discipline of students, and to promote research. These powers invested in the universities had been subject to government interference.

In the area of administrative autonomy, the promulgation of the Decree No. 23, of 1975 tends to be a threat to the powers of the Council in the appointment of the Chancellor, Pro-Chancellor/ Chairman of Council and the Vice Chancellor (Ajayi and Awe, 2008; Ekundayo and Adedokun, 2009). The appointment of these individuals currently have become political with the Visitor (Proprietor of the University) performing this function. This implies that in the case of federal universities, the President makes the appointments, while the Governors have the final say in the case of the state universities and the Proprietor decides in the case of private universities.

The autonomy of universities was also considered eroded in the area of academic matters which by statutory right, was the freedom invested in the Senate of the universities to organize and control teaching, admission and discipline of students, and promote research. The establishment of JAMB in 1978 which now conducts entry examinations into the universities instead of the Senate of the various universities is further considered erosion to academic freedom. The introduction of the quota system for admission by this organ instead of emphasis on merit is another dimension of the controversy on autonomy as observed by many authors like Onyeonoru (2009).

Prior to the establishment of the NUC in 1962 and its reconstitution in 1974, establishment of academic programmes in universities was the function of the university senate (Ekundayo and Adedokun, 2009). However, this is no longer the current practice. Rather, the universities are required to obtain approval from NUC before a programme is established. The implication of this as Onyeonoru (2009) lamented is that, “in several areas, universities have lost their power to develop new programmes, realign their courses, and the content of their curricular to match labour market requirements”. As he noted, such changes including changes in the names of departments of a university would require the approval of the NUC. The same observation was made by Ajayi and Awe (2008) who pointed out that the NUC is now performing other functions other than its mandate at inception. NUC is the organ of the Federal Government that accredits programmes of



universities. In performing the role, it uses Minimum Academic Standard as benchmark to assess performance of academic programmes in the universities, thereby, preventing universities from developing their own individual curricula and syllabuses. The extent of involvement of NUC in the affairs of the universities was lamented by ASUU who in 2004, through its National President, Dr. Oladipo Fashana noted that: “the NUC is encroaching into the functions of Senate and Academic Research Committees in the universities. It is now taking over the control of research in universities; it is trying to determine the conditions of employment of lecturers”.

The universities by statutory provision had the autonomy to generate and disburse fund (Fabunmi, 2007). This is not the case presently as the universities rely on government for fund. Reconciling university autonomy with government control of fund is a basic issue the universities have to deal with. As Onyeonoru (2009) observed, since government is responsible for fund that goes to the university system, it is reasonable that it allots such fund in a way that ensures “efficiency of the educational system and the economical use of available resources”. This dependency on government for fund is the reason why many believe that achievement of full autonomy by universities might not be that easy.

#### **(vi) Brain Drain:**

For a university to generate and transmit knowledge requires that it has its pool of talent and students interacting in the teaching-learning process and research (Oni, 2000). Among the many challenges facing universities in Nigeria in the discharge of their mandate is the brain drain syndrome. The Study Group on Brain Drain in Nigerian Universities (1994) defined the phenomenon as “large scale movement by lecturers and senior non-academic staff away from the Nigerian university system in pursuit of self-actualization” (NUC, 1994, p.2). The group identified five categories of staff involved in the brain drain as:

- i. Nigerian academics that have transferred their services to foreign establishment, universities, hospitals, research institutes, international organizations, etc.
- ii. Nigerian academics who have moved to more lucrative activities and political appointments in Nigeria and who, by so doing have disengaged from teaching and research;
- iii. Young academicians who refused to return to Nigeria after their studies/leave abroad;

- iv. Young graduates with potentials who are reluctant to pursue higher degrees in preparation for employment as lecturers, etc. but opting for careers in financially more lucrative sectors of Nigerian economy e.g. banks and financial houses;
- v. Expatriates who have returned to their home countries or immigrated to other countries in pursuit of higher wages.

The group also found, like some other writers such as Okecha, 2008 and Yaqub, 2007 that the main fields affected by the phenomenon were professionals like, in order of magnitude, medicine and related disciplines; architects; engineers and related technicians; social sciences, sciences and sports. Yaqub (2007, p.7) explained the reason why the “most skilled and highly professionalized segments of the workforce” would likely be the ones to react in the form of brain drain during the period of economic trough. From his explanation, these groups of workers are the ones that have a lot at stake this period. He noted that this will be the case “in situations where such highly professionalized workers would not get satisfaction from the work place” (p.7) either because they do not have the needed tools for work or there has been a depreciation in the value of their wages or both. Further, Olufemi (n.d) pointed out that international labour migration of unskilled labour is of less importance to political economic analysis. However, movement of skilled workers or professionals, he observed, represent a great loss to the country that has invested so much in their training and skill development. He cited Oladapo (1988) who described as “liberal”, an estimate that 1500 Nigerian physicians are in Europe alone. The World Bank Report of 15<sup>th</sup> September, 1996, based on a study of staff loss and retention in selected African universities, indicated an estimate of 10,000 Nigerians employed in the United States alone. Yaqub (2007, p.5) also reported this fact with regard to a quote in Obasi (2006) which states that “it is now widely believed that about 10,000 Nigerian academics are employed in the United States alone”. Apart from salary and other welfare packages, the migration of these Nigerian professionals is said to be induced by the opportunity to develop their career and keep abreast with what is happening in their field of knowledge.

People believe that the current situation of Nigerian universities is unattractive for ambitious individuals to work. The prolonged economic downturn experienced by Nigeria affected its budgetary allocation to the universities leading to the rationalization or cancellation of certain services provided for staff (Yaqub, 2007). Such services included supporting and sponsoring staff to conferences, stationary items, working tools, items for

information and communications technology and some others. All these were in the midst of high student enrolment, bringing about low morale and exit of academics who could not contend with the situation. Different policies put in place by government to address the issue of quality in the university system have not achieved their purpose due to shortage of qualified academic staff (Saint, et al, 2003). The Federal Ministry of Education (2003) reported academic staff shortfall of 46% in Nigerian universities in the year 2000. The Study Group on brain drain observed that the phenomenon weakens the programmes of the Nigerian university system and demoralizes potential young academics, and also frustrates both students and remaining staff. Further, as staff/student ratio drops due to high enrolment and shortage of staff, work load became increased leading to low morale (Yaqub, 2007; Saint et al, 2003).

To conclude this section, it is worthwhile to cite Ibidapo-Obe (2010), a former Vice Chancellor and the President of the Nigerian Academy of Science, who observed while assessing the Nigerian university system since independence that:

*“the Nigerian University System that emerged at par with the best in the world at independence in terms of quality teaching and outstanding research sank into a great abyss of despair in the 1980s and 90s due to total neglect by governments and this led to avoidable brain drain of the same human resource that made Nigeria the envy of other nations of the world at independence”* (Ibidapo-Obe, 2010, p.247).

This does not actually mean that no attempt has ever been made by Nigerian government to put the situation under control. Probably, the problems had accumulated so much that any effort seems not to be noticed, or comparison with provisions made for other sectors like the jumbo salary of political office holders as reported by authors such as Okecha (2008), makes it appear that government is not doing enough. It is also recognized in literature, that government, especially under the civilian administration, had at various points taken some measures to address the challenges. For instance, to widen access, private universities were permitted to operate and the National Open University was established in 2001 to provide tertiary education through Open and Distance Learning (Moja, 2000; FME, 2003; Okebukola, 2006). Saint et al (2003) also recorded other actions to include the revocation of the vice-chancellors' former privilege to select 10% of students' admission each year, reconstitution of all university governing councils with broader representation, exemption of university staff from public service salary scales and regulations, and a 180% increase in funding of the university system, and forwarding of the university autonomy bill to the National Assembly. In spite of all these, the problem in the university system does not seem to abate.

## 2.7 Employee Incentives in Nigerian Universities

### 2.7.1 Salaries and Wages in the Universities: Past and Present.

The status of academics in terms of salary and conditions of service at the early years of Nigeria independence was very high, been among the highest paid in the country (Ekong, 2002; Onyeonoru, 2009). According to Onyeonoru, the emolument of the Principal of the University College, Ibadan then was higher than those of the Army Major General and Commissioner. With the military coup of January 15, 1966 and the army now occupying the nation's polity, things began to change for the academics. Even then, as Onyeonoru recorded, despite that military reviewed the salary that tended towards its favour, professors were receiving higher emoluments than the top civil servants like Federal Cabinet Ministers and Federal Permanent Secretaries (Group 4), while other lecturing cadres also received pays higher than their counterparts in the civil service. The situation worsened in 1974 with the recommendations of the Udoji Commission Report on the Review of Public Service which brought the conditions of service of the university teachers under the civil service structure (Adesina, 1998 cited in Onyeonoru, 2009).

Lack of motivation due to poor wages had been identified among academic staff of current Nigerian University system (Oni, 2000). Oni noted that "within the domestic labour market, Nigerian lecturers constitute the least paid workers" (p.23). He believes that the wage differential between the universities and other sectors of the Nigerian economy in the early 1990s, coupled with the comparative disadvantage of the academicians vis-à-vis their counterparts in other African countries was one of the major source of frustration among the academic staff. This situation is seen to be the major reason for the high human capital flight from the universities.

**Table 2.8: A Comparison of Average Salaries in Different Sectors of the Nigerian Economy.**

Sector	Salary per Annum in Naira	Salary per Annum in Dollars (US \$)
Public Sector (oil)	450,000 - 600,000	5625 – 7500
Public Sector (Iron & Steel)	300,000 - 400,000	3750 – 5000

Nigerian Economy (Average)	100,000 - 200,000	1250 – 2500
<b>University Academic Salary</b>	<b>30,000 - 54,000</b>	375 – 675

**Source:** ASUU, National Secretariat Publication, 1997 cited in Oni (2000, p.23)

Exchange rate = 80 Naira: 1dollar.

**Table 2.9: Academic Staff Salaries in Selected African Countries**

Countries	Academic Salaries per Annum (US \$)		
	Lecturer	Senior Lecturer	Professor
South Africa	15,000	30,000	55,000
Zimbabwe	12,000	24,000	48,000
Ethiopia	3,600	4,800	6,000
Kenya	3,600	4,500	5,400
Ghana	1,800	3,000	4,800
<b>Nigeria</b>	<b>222</b>	<b>360</b>	<b>439,2</b>

**Source:** ASUU National Secretariat Publication, 1997 cited in Oni (2000, p.24).

Arikewuyo (2008) observed that conditions of service of academic staff are one of the contentious issues between the government and the Academic Staff Union. This, he noted, covered such areas as salary and allowances, retirement and pension, appointment, discipline and promotion of staff, and other areas. Equally, problems were also reported to

have arisen occasionally between university administration and academic staff over payment of outstanding allowances and salaries.

On October 23, 2009, the President of Academic Staff Union had a press conference explaining some details about the nature of the agreement the union signed with the Federal Government in order to end the impasse of strike action embarked upon by the union. The union's agitations that led to the strike and subsequently, the negotiation that resulted to the agreement covered a wide range of issues of which conditions of service was one. He explained the need to make the conditions of service in the Nigerian university system attractive in order to stop the exodus of Nigeria's young PhD holders and other academics to the United States of America, Europe and South Africa. Part of his observation was that for the last seven years, exodus of these academics to South Africa had intensified. According to him, the expressed difficulty of Nigerian Government to pay the academics a level of remuneration close to what obtains in other African countries where the academics emigrate was untenable to the union (see Table 2.10). This is because of the union's observation that the earnings of some political office holders are by far, much greater than those of academics. For instance, he indicated that "each Local Government Councillor earns over 4 times, each member of the House of Representatives over seven times, and each Senator over nine times the salary of a University Professor".

Okecha (2008) further painted a sorry picture of the salaries and allowances of academic staff of Nigerian universities when compared with those of the executive, political and public officers at the federal, state and local government levels and those in other African universities.

**Table 2.10: Comparative Salaries in African Universities (Purchasing Power Parities, PPPs, in US Dollars)**

Position	South Africa	Botswana	Ghana	Nigeria	Average
Professor	160,588.5	112,489.3	80,309.68	46,011.37	99,849.73
Associate Professor	120,514.9	101,430.9	62,642.3	38,483.39	80,767.88
Senior Lecturer	102,608.4	92,847.74	43,853.84	33,669.03	68,244.75
Lecturer I	88,039.49	83,255.04	42,280.41	20,711.15	58,571.52

**Source:** ASUU, 2007 cited in Okecha (2008, p.82)

From Okecha's analysis, the basic salary of the Chief Justice of the Federation that used to be at par with that of a professor is now almost five times that of a Professor. From his point of reference, the annual basic salaries of the Chief Justice of the Federation, Special Adviser to the Local Government Chairman, and even the Supervisory Councilor are higher than that of a Nigerian Professor in the university. When it comes to allowances, while a professor receives only some amount of money per annum as transport allowance, a senator receives a car loan "362 times the amount approved for a professor's yearly transport allowance" (p.79). Okecha's figures emanated from a publication in Nigeria's Punch Newspapers of Tuesday, June 12, 2007 on the new salaries of the executive, political and public officers released by the Revenue Mobilization Allocation and Fiscal Committee (RMAFC). Further, the average salaries of academic staff in Nigerian universities have been shown not to compete internationally with those from other Commonwealth nations like Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, Malaysia, Singapore and the United Kingdom (Okecha, 2008).

However, these comparative academic salaries and conditions of service have been subjected to debates by some individuals who believe some factors were not taken into cognizance by the academic staff while raising such comparisons. Some of these factors as raised by the University Councils Negotiating Team in 2000 were that:

- Nigeria has one of the lowest Gross Domestic Products (GDP) among the countries it was compared with and therefore, this will determine the affordable remuneration package it can pay to all its employee,
- Nigeria experiences lower cost of living but higher standard of living compared to most African countries because of its endowed natural resources and agricultural produce. The argument arises because of the perceived fundamental disequilibrium emanating from constant discrepancy between the exchange rate of the currency of a country and the purchasing power of that currency;
- Due to its large population and quality of educational system, Nigeria has produced more qualified manpower or professionals than any of these countries it is compared with. This disparity is the reason why Nigeria exports some of its professionals to these countries under the Technical Aid Corps programme, and for the countries to retain these professionals' means that higher remuneration has to be offered to them;
- The academic and other special allowances earned by Nigerian academics are usually not available to those of other countries.

For the comparison of Professors salaries with those of political appointees, the University Councils believe that dragging into contention the remuneration of the political appointees was wrong, as the tenure of these officers were “at the pleasure of the man who appointed them”.

A study by Egbule (2003) on the job satisfaction of academic staff in Nigerian universities showed that generally, there was an increase in the level of job satisfaction over the past five years, and that the lecturers in the federal universities have a higher mean job satisfaction score than those in the state and private universities. Based on the work of Teferra and Altbach (2003), Collingwood (2007) noted that, though, the government had increased the salaries of faculty, the take home pay of \$1000.00 for a Nigerian Professor was still low even by African standard. In terms of academic research, which is necessary for career development, they noted that, spending on research in the country was among the lowest in the world as a percentage of gross national product.

### **2.7.2: Pay As You Earn (PAYE) Income Tax Policy and Worker Welfare**

Another area that had affected the welfare of Nigerian workers and academics is the recent government monetization process and consolidated salary structure. This new structure resulted in consolidating in-kind, benefits, which were not previously taxed, thereby, making workers’ pay higher tax and reducing their take home pay (Nigeria Labour Congress, 2009). This and the perceived wide discrepancy on wage increase between workers’ salaries and those of political office holders has resulted in a call for general wage review by workers of various sectors of the Nigerian economy. For instance, the Nigeria Labour Congress (2009) observed that in public sectors all over the world, salary increases are guided by the principle of equity and the need to bridge widening economic and social inequality among the citizens of a country. It noted that this is not the case in Nigerian situation where, for example, between 2006 and 2007, the salaries of workers increased by 15%, while those of political office holders increased by 800%.

Further, the income tax (PAYE) paid by public servants has become too much because the income tax law has become obsolete and need review. The pay as you earn (PAYE) system was introduced in Nigeria following the Personal Income Tax Decree of 1993 (Boedels, 2002; FGN, 2002) now Personal Income Act 1993. Under the income tax laws, the employers collect tax by deducting it from the salaries of employees. However, some components of the salaries are excluded from the deduction. The provisions made for education of children for example, when a worker’s salary was about N1,000.00 is still the



same as his salary increased to about N100,000.00 or more. It means that the deductions made for children's education before salaries are taxed is very small making workers loose so much to tax. Further, workers' pay taxes according to what obtains in the state where they work. Some are more highly taxed than others according to the tax law.

### **2.7.3 The Reforms in Pension Schemes**

Prior to 2004, the pension scheme in Nigeria's public service system had been an under and unfunded defined benefit scheme which was considered to be weak and inefficient, and also unregulated (Ahmad, 2008; Tongola, et al, n.d). The pension benefit payment was based on annual budgetary allocation which in most cases was inadequate and lately released, leading to accumulation of arrears of pension accruable to pensioners, who were not receiving their pension entitlements regularly. On the other hand, in the private sector, there were unstructured and unfunded private sector schemes (Tongola et al, n.d). Many of the employees in this sector were not covered by the pension scheme put in place by their organizations and often, the schemes are not funded, making them voluntary. Consequently, most private sector employees were not covered by any form of retirement benefit arrangements (Ahmad, 2008).

In order to eliminate the numerous problems bedeviling the Direct Benefit (DB) scheme, the federal government in 2004, introduced a new pension scheme known as the Contributory Pension Scheme which "shall apply to all employees in the Public Service of the Federation, Federal Capital Territory, and the Private Sector" (FGN, 2004, p.A33). The key objectives of the scheme as summarized by Ahmad (2008) were to:

- Ensure that every worker receives his retirement benefits as and when due
- Empower the worker and assist workers to save in order to cater for their livelihood during old age
- Stem the growth of pension liabilities
- Establish uniform rules, regulations and standards for administration of pension matters
- Secure compliance and promote wider coverage.

Under the new scheme, there is mandatory minimum contribution of 7.5% by an employee and 7.5% by employer, of employee's monthly emoluments into the employee's retirement savings account (RSA) (Tongola et al, n.d). The scheme was a welcome

development among many employees because of the inefficiency of the previous direct benefit scheme.

#### **2.7.4 The Basic Conditions of Service of University Employees**

Following the recommendation of the Presidential Commission on Salaries and Conditions of Service of University Staff (Cookey Commission) Report (1981), the universities were removed from the unified grading and salary structure (UGSS) which the Udoji Commission (1974) placed them in conjuncture with the parastatals and the civil service (Longe Report, 1991). A new University System Scale was established for the universities which made their salaries slightly higher than in the civil service. The universities used to enjoy some fringe benefits such as medical care for staff and family, sabbatical leave, learned conferences overseas and locally, study leaves, research and publication allowances. However, the Longe report observed that the current position of these salaries and benefits had become unsatisfactory and in some cases, unimplemented because of inflation and exchange rate of the Naira. Also was the case of unavailability of fund to the universities to provide these incentives and other conducive working environment that will improve staff motivation.

There are a number of areas in which the conditions of service of academic staff in the universities are better off than other employees in other public service sectors of the economy. For instance, the Harmonized Tertiary Institutions Salary Structure (HATISS) used in the universities has higher pay figure than the salary structure used in core civil service (Dada, 2006). Also, on retirement age, employees in the civil service sectors retire earlier than academic staff in the universities (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2006, p.48). However, the quantity and quality of benefits in the university system is believed to depend on whether a staff is serving with the federal university, the state university, or the private university. For instance, it is believed that condition of service is better with the public universities than private universities (Ajadi, 2010a). Also, Obadara (2010) observed that “research is rarely emphasized by the private universities, because, some of them tend to rely on part-time lecturers and do not have regular staff to carry out research”. There is equally the feeling that the emolument of staff, funding of facilities for teaching and research, funding of post-graduate programmes, staff development and some other conditions are better in the federal than the state universities. This is why ASUU had on various occasions such as its press conferences of 2004 and 2009, called on state governments to fund their universities, and on federal government to assist in funding of state universities. There is also the issue of job security which is believed to be better with

federal than with state and private universities (e.g. Adekola, 2012). This is because the public sector organizations in Nigeria, especially in the federal government sectors, have well-defined system of hiring and retrenching workers.

## **2.8 The Crux of Government-Union Disagreements over the Years**

The crux of Government-Union disagreement over the years is related to three broad areas: inadequate university funding, lack of respect for university autonomy or academic freedom, and poor conditions of service (Esenwa, Jnr., 2003; Onyeonoru, n.d; Arikewuyo, 2008). Onyeonoru believes that these issues have tended to endanger the basic objectives of excellent teaching, research and community development associated with the university. According to him, these issues made the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) embark on several national strikes, in 1973, 1988, 1992, 1994 and 1996, 1998, 2001 and 2003. The problems in the universities started in 1972 with the inclusion of the universities with the parastatals and civil service in a Unified Grading and Salary Structure by the Udoji Commission (Longe Report, 1991). Prior to this time, staff of the universities were enjoying salaries and conditions of service better than those in the civil service and comparable with those in the private sector organizations, and these conditions were determined by the Governing Council of each university. According to Longe Report (1991), the agitation by the universities over their inclusion in the unified grading structure led to the setting up of a Presidential Commission on salary and conditions of service of university staff, known as Cookey Commission in 1981. The recommendation of the commission brought about the establishment of another salary structure for the universities known as the University System Scales (USS), which put the salaries of the university staff a little above those of the parastatals and the civil service, but did not return the power to determine the salaries and conditions of service of university staff to the university council.

The 1992 strike is of particular note because it was an industrial trade dispute declared by ASUU with “the Federal Government of Nigeria, the Governing Council of each state and Federal Government, the Minister of Education and National Universities Commission” (Esenwa, Jnr., 2003) over these key issues. The negotiation that followed and the resultant agreement signed by ASUU and Federal Government incidentally became the basis for serious contest between the two parties that seemed not to be resolved. Certain developments after signing the agreement made ASUU believe that government was not keeping to its part of the agreement. According to Onyeonoru (2009), the inability of government to bring several provisions of the agreement into operation resulted in an

intensive contest between both parties over its implementation. Some of these provisions are still, currently, basis for negotiation and strike actions in the universities. For instance, Esenwa Jnr. (2003) gave the following series of strikes by the academic staff after the 1992 agreement:

- 1994 strike for increase in salary
- 1995 strike for the review of the 1992 Agreement
- 1996 strike for 7 months demanding recall of the dismissed ASUU President and the need to review the 1992 Agreement.
- 1999 Strike for 5 months leading to constitution of a Federal Government Negotiating Team to negotiate with ASUU on “salaries, wages and other conditions of service in the university system”. An agreement was signed on May 25, 1999.
- 1999 Strike over perceived non-implementation of the October 26, 1999 signed Agreement
- 2000 ASUU strike for the resumption on negotiation of basic salaries, university funding, and autonomy
- 2001 ASUU strike for 3 months over stalemate in the negotiation. Agreement was signed in 30<sup>th</sup> June, 2001
- 2002 ASUU strike for 2 weeks over perceived non-implementation of the 2001 agreements
- 2003 all the unions in the university system were on strike (that of ASUU been continuation of its strike of 2002 that started on December 29 that year) over the following issues:
  - Inadequate funding
  - Non-implementation of agreement
  - Disparity in salary
  - Retirement age
  - Non-implementation of allowances

The 1992 agreement between ASUU and government was to be reviewed every three years to reflect social, economic and inflationary trends and cost of living (Onyeonoru, 2009). However, as reported by Onyeonoru, the then Federal Military Government in power refused to review the Agreement when it was due in May, 1995 while the then Minister of Education, described it as one of “limited obligation”. This led to the four-

month strike of May 3 to September 8, 1995. It is also of note that following the 1992 agreement, the academic staff got a 15% differential pay rise in basic salary above other categories of staff in the universities. The salary discrepancy between the teaching and non-teaching staff in the universities resulted to a strike by the non-teaching staff in 1993, who demanded for parity in salary (Esenwa, Jnr., 2003).

The 1992 industrial dispute also led to the proscription of ASUU at the national level in 1996 (Esenwa, 2003; Onyeonoru, 2009). It is of note that up to 2010, these key issues which were part of the 1992 agreement still form the bases for union-government (especially ASUU) face-offs and negotiation. For example, here is an excerpt from a text of the press conference by ASUU President, on 23<sup>rd</sup> October, 2009:

*“The Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) has called this Press Conference to brief you on the outcome of the latest stage in the industrial dispute between the Government of Nigeria and the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU). You will recall that on June 22, 2009, the National Executive Council (NEC) of ASUU, rising from a meeting held at the Federal University of Technology, Akure, declared a total and indefinite strike to compel the Federal Government of Nigeria to sign the Agreement reached with ASUU after over two (2) years of the re-negotiation of the June 2001 FGN-ASUU Agreement” (ASUU, 2009).*

This strike reported by ASUU President, resulted in another negotiation and signing of an Agreement between the Federal Government and ASUU on 21<sup>st</sup> October, 2009. According to ASUU President, the agreement covered funding; conditions of service; university autonomy and academic freedom; and others. In another press conference on 1<sup>st</sup> February, 2010a, ASUU brought to the attention of the press, the perceived non-implementation of aspects of the Agreement by the Federal Government. ASUU President had this to say on the issue:

*“The 2009 agreement provides that the Federal Government of Nigeria shall endeavour to progressively increase its budgetary allocation to the education sector in accordance with its vision 20:20:20. In 2009 the FGN allocated 7.6% of its total budget to education. The expectation is that FGN shall allocate at least 13% of the total 2010 proposed budget to education. Instead, the sum of about 249 billion Naira representing a paltry 6.1% of the total 4.089 trillion naira budgeted was allocated to education. This is clearly a violation of the 2009 agreement, which unless the National Assembly intervenes quickly has the potential of generating another crisis in our universities” (ASUU, 2010a).*

Again in May, 2010b, ASUU noted that the 2009 agreement was “a benchmark for sustaining the ideals of Nigeria’s university system in terms of academic standard, entry requirements, funding, conditions of service, autonomy and academic freedom”. It went

further to observe that the state governments were either not implementing the agreement to expectation or totally unwilling to implement the various aspects of the agreement, especially in the area of condition of service and funding, a situation it believed might bring unnecessary dichotomy between the state and federal universities which operate under the same minimum standards, administered by the same national commission. Another aspect of non-compliance by the government identified by ASUU was the aspect on pension for university staff and compulsory retirement age which stipulated the retirement age of 70 years for some ASUU members as opposed to the previous 65 years retirement age.

## **2.9 Conclusion from the chapter**

So far, the chapter has been able to explore the genesis of the problems in Nigerian universities. It described Nigeria and its people, and provided details about the evolution of university education in the country. The goals of Nigeria higher education was highlighted, with views of scholars on how to go about achieving the goals. The different challenges confronting the achievement of these goals are described, bringing out different dimensions of the motivation and commitment problems in the system that are perceived as instrumental to decline in level of performance of the universities.

It makes sense to conclude that the problems are mainly structural, transcending a range of issues, both economic and noneconomic, with poor funding being at the centre of the whole problems. However, there are managerial aspects of the problem that have been observed. The review has expressed the views of prominent Nigerians who had pointed to the fact that ineffective leadership in the universities is among the major causes of the problem. Apparently, there are signs of lack of motivation and satisfaction among the academics that had diminished the commitment of those of them that had left the system. The historical analysis of these issues also portrayed some measures put in place by government to improve the situation, such as improvement in funding, which, some observers (e.g. Moja, 2000; Abdu, 2003; Saint et al, 2003; Uvah, 2005b) feel, have not absolved the universities of the numerous problems facing them.

## **Summary**

The first evidence of a university in Nigeria was the establishment of the University College Ibadan in 1948 which was an appendage of the University of London (e.g. Fafunwa, 1971; Ifemeje, 1979a). The first full-fledged autonomous university in the country was the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, established in the year of the country's

independence, 1960, by the people of the eastern region of Nigeria (Fafunwa, 1971; Ifemeje, 1979b) and patterned after the American land-grant university (Fafunwa, 1971). The tremendous increase in enrolment and the number of the universities that emerged after 1960 made the country's university system seen as the most expansive in Africa (Okebukola, 2010). As at 2010, the system had a record of about 104 universities. The system, particularly the public sector universities, has well-developed labour unions that protect the interest of the various groups they represent (Onyeonoru, 2004, 2009; ASUU, 2004, 2009; Piwuna, 2006). The activities of the universities are currently, regulated by a body known as the National Universities Commission while the admission of the students into the universities is conducted by the Joint Admissions and Matriculations Board. The involvement of these two bodies in the affairs of the institutions was part of the contentious issues of autonomy and academic freedom that formed part of the crisis in the university system, although, the fall in oil prices and devaluation of the Naira currency reduced the amount of fund going into the universities (ASUU, 2004; Fabunmi, 2007; Ajayi and Awe, 2008; Onyonoru, 2009; Ekundayo and Adedokun, 2009). Poor leadership and governance, coupled with autonomous issues and poor funding resulted to problems such as poor incentives for academics, lack of facilities for teaching and research in the midst of high students' enrolment, incessant strike by unions, poor quality performance, and brain drain (NUC, 1994; Nwabueze, 1995; Moja, 2000; Saint et al, 2003; Okebukola, 2005; Yaqub, 2007; Okecha, 2008) . Based on the review of the nature of the problems in the university system, the chapter concludes that both structural and managerial problems are implicated in the crisis in the system. Chapter 3 that follows discusses the theoretical review of literature and conceptual framework of the study.

## CHAPTER THREE

### THEORETICAL REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

#### 3.1 Introduction

The literature review followed a systematic approach by first trying to uncover articles that are applicable to the research, and then, examining the extent of their relevance through inclusion and exclusion criteria. Through the process, literature materials were sourced to uncover the general goals of university education and specifically, the expectations of the Nigerian people from their universities (3.2). A brief review of the importance of human factors in organizations is provided to enlighten the reader of the fact that, the success or performance of any organization in the attempt to achieve its goals depends largely on the employees that work in it (3.3). Working conditions and motivation is discussed in section (3.4). In section (3.5), the link between working conditions, organizational commitment and performance is explored.

#### 3.2 The Goals of Nigerian Universities Explained

Since the university is an organizational entity, its performance is dependent on the extent to which it has accomplished its goals. Therefore, it is important to find out the views of various scholars on what a university stands for. University education is considered vital in the development of any society (Okojie, 2008). Its impact is felt in the social, economic and political life of a nation. It is recognized that knowledge is “the major instrument for moving the society forward” (Obanya, 2010, p.522). The universities, by virtue of their functions are expected to generate, disseminate and apply knowledge in order to solve societal problems. As Altbach (1998) noted, the knowledge-based society of the twenty-first century will continue to see the university as the centre of economic and cultural development.

The roles of universities are often condensed into three basic mandates of teaching, research and community/or public services (Banjo, 2006; Albert, 2010; Ibidapo-Obe, 2010). The three mandates are regarded by Obanya (2010) as knowledge generation (research), knowledge transmission (teaching), and knowledge application (responsive social engagement), the three of which should co-exist for tertiary institution to be effective to the society. These three global responsibilities notwithstanding, Albert (2010), in a paper marking fifty years of university education in Nigeria, titled “*Filling functional gaps in university education in Nigeria*” noted that there is no “global



consensus” (p.490) on how universities should undertake these functions, because, it is the universities that decide how best to achieve these mandates. Further, he pointed out that, each university determines the amount of emphasis it gives to each of these three mandates, while the nations decide what their expectations from their universities are.

In a paper on the vision and mission of university education in Nigeria, Banjo (2006) expatiated on the mandates of universities. Going by his formulation of the tripartite mandates of a university, it is implied that the universities have the mandate to: (i) teach, “which must include moral and intellectual formation” (p.5); (ii) research, that is, “to create more wealth and comfort for society” (p.5); and (iii) provide public services, which means that academics should not confine their attention exclusively to the ivory tower. Therefore, universities around the world are showing greater emphasis on national development, together with “the indisputable imperative of conscientious teaching and guidance of students” (p.5). Banjo’s explanation underscores, among others, the emphasis on value as one of the items that formed the goals of tertiary education in Nigeria, as stipulated in the National Policy on Education (NPE). These are laudable goals capable of enhancing the nation’s socio-political, economic and industrial growth. The universities are expected to make the greatest contribution to national development. In order to achieve these goals, the university community of scholars needs to operate in an atmosphere that is conducive for teaching and learning. The atmosphere should be one that provides the needed requirements for teaching and research, as well as one that enhances the well-being of the academics.

With this insight into the goals of Nigerian universities, this research assumes that the number of graduates and their qualities are measures of how much a university has contributed to the manpower needs of the nation and how well the academic staff have done their job. The academic staff can also contribute to national development through research and publications, which is capable of generating findings that could generate, among others, new products and new ways of doing things, thereby, creating wealth and comfort for the society. Community/Public services could be achieved by academic staff getting involved in some activities that are to the overall interest of the community or nation as a whole outside the university environment. This could be in form of consultancy services, participation in discourses on issues of national importance, responding/assisting local communities in certain areas of need.

### **3.3 The Importance of the Human Factor in Organizational Performance**

Education is a major social institution of any modern nation and is a key player in the search for industrialization. The Global Partnership for Education (2014) noted that education is capable of making the world a better place. Regarding it as an important investment by a country for its people and its future, it pointed out that education is critical in reducing poverty and inequality. Arguably the university system in particular is established to pursue teaching, research and community development intended to continuously transform society and bring about the highest level of human progress. For a university system to achieve the intended goals, it must be managed in accordance with the best possible theories, principles and practices. Of all that the university system has to manage, employees are the most significant and strategic. This is to say that human beings are the most important resource or factor of production in any organization (Armstrong, 2008; Mckenna and Beech, 2008). Their behaviour, abilities, competencies, needs and aspirations could greatly influence the extent the goals of the organization could be achieved (e.g. Huselid, 1995), even when the other resources are abundant. As such, individuals are regarded as the basic building blocks of organizations (Martin and Fellenz, 2010). Therefore, organizations have to strive to sustain a culture of performance among its employees by providing an environment conducive for working. The university is an organization and the human factor is very crucial for the achievement of its corporate goals. The actions or inactions of these individuals irrespective of the availability of other resources would likely have considerable influence on its performance.

The composition of employees varies so also is their contribution to the organization. Individual members, just like in any society, are interdependent and this is indispensable for a sustainable business i.e. a business that meets the needs of present and future generations. For an organization to achieve intended goals, it has to align the decisions about people with decisions about the results it is trying to get (US Office of Personnel Management, 1999). One of the problems facing many organizations like the Nigerian universities is employee turnover, in this case, commonly referred to as brain drain. Employee turnover is expensive and has negative impacts on productivity (Udechukwu, 2009). For the Nigerian university system which has been characterized by the brain drain syndrome, one can imagine the extent of damage this has done to its performance. Therefore, finding out possible ways of making the working conditions more attractive for the remaining academics to be more committed to their job and organization would likely go a long way in improving performance of the universities.

### **3.4: Employee Working Conditions and Motivation**

This section helps our understanding of the influence working conditions have on individuals' motivation to act in certain ways, including their disposition towards staying and helping their organizations achieve their goals. Managing people in the workplace so that they help organizations achieve their goals is an important and challenging function of an organization. Working conditions constitute an important subject matter in organizational literature. According to Ukaegbu (2000, p.298), "poor working conditions find expression in the spontaneous abandonment of organizations by employees". This is detrimental to the human capacity building of the organization and impacts on its effectiveness (Armstrong, 2008). This section therefore, provides an indication that the link between working conditions, organizational commitment and performance is as a result of the influence working conditions has on motivation. It also, reveals different perspectives on motivation and employees satisfaction at work, with some experiences from Nigeria.

Employee working condition as a concept is a generic and complex one. It is difficult to describe it completely, because, all of its indicators or factors cannot be easily pointed out. In line with this, Ladd (2009) noted that a comprehensive survey of working conditions could be extensive as well as difficult to interpret, hence, forcing researchers most times, to concentrate on those aspects of working conditions that are significant to policy decisions. In view of this complexity, a possible way of getting an idea of such factors is by looking at issues central to industrial disputes, or research findings, highlighting the trade union checklist of issues important to the workers. For instance, the issues of work environment and pay and/or incentives had been one of the recurrent factors reported in literature as causing disputes between academic staff in Nigeria and university administration.

Gallstedt (2003) indicated that workers perception of working conditions are affected by two factors: motivation and stress. Attempt is made in this research to define employee working conditions, referring to it as all the affairs or totality of all the experiences of workers in their organization, which impact directly or indirectly on their job. Some of the affairs may or not be defined in the employment contract, may or may not be manifest, may be tangible or intangible. Since one cannot point out all of its indicators, attention will be paid to those issues considered critical to workers in a particular organization and

issues that academics in Nigeria have reported as impacting on their job. These factors are assumed to differ in the different universities. Again, public and private organizations are known to differ in some characteristics of their employees or work environment (Wright, 2001), such as incentive structure, job security, staff development efforts, opportunity for growth of academics, among others (e.g. Erinosh, 2008; Ajadi, 2010a). These differences impact meaningfully on work motivation (Wright, 2001).

Working conditions vary greatly between organizations and culture. Also, what people want from work that motivate them to put in a particular behaviour towards their work or organization also vary. As such, the type of relationship between working conditions, organizational commitment and performance may likely vary between organizations, gender and geographical location. For instance, Curtis, Upchurch and Severt (2009) found mixed results on the motivational and organizational commitment factors of tipped and nontipped restaurant employees differentiated by gender, in their research in the United States. Based on the outcome of the study, they concluded that motivational issues can lead to problems in organizations in such areas as turnover, retention, morale and poor productivity.

In their report on creating a motivating work environment, Parisi-Carew and Guthrie (2009) interviewed 240 US-based adults in order to find out an outstanding learning environment, an exceptional work environment and, the influence of leadership in the development of these environments. Their result showed that across all generation and gender, “most people desire an open, safe, and welcoming environment in which they are challenged and encouraged to stretch beyond their comfort zone, grow, and learn” (p.2). They also need work environment that encourages participation, collaboration, sharing and sense of community. Further, the scholars found that leaders play a great role in influencing positive work environment. This underscores the importance of good leadership in an organization.

As an important asset in any organization, human factors play a strategic role in the performance of any organization (e.g. Huselid, 1995). Studying working condition of employees is important, in that it gives a picture of the likely motivation state of the employees. Motivation in the workplace is a prominent topic in any discussion about getting things done through employees. It is generally believed that employee motivation is significant to the success of any organization. For instance, in a working paper on

incentive systems, the United Nations Development Programme, UNDP (2006) recognized that incentives systems (measured in terms of salaries, secondary benefits, and intangible rewards, recognition or sanctions) have significant influence on individual performance and hence the organizational overall performance. It noted, also, that these measures have been used traditionally to motivate workers to increase performance. Motivating employees to performance is not only necessary for organizational success, but also for the growth of the employees (Ajila and Abiola, 2004). In order to motivate employees for public service performance, the UNDP (2006) working paper suggests that, it is necessary to first address the range of de-motivating factors such as pay level and other non-material incentives believed to have significant influence on staff motivation and organizational performance.

Work motivation continues to be a dominant construct in organizational studies. However, its definition is a subject of debate (Brooks, 2006). Motivation is regarded as a critical factor in individual, group and organization success. Brooks gave a simplistic definition of motivation as the willingness to perform. For Dressler (2001 in Ifinedo, 2004, p.162), it is “the intensity of a person’s desire to engage in some activity”. Brooks (2006) described well- motivated people as those that:

- i. consistently achieve at work and exhibit energy and enthusiasm in the process;
- ii. work with people to overcome organizational problems, or obstacle to progress;
- iii. frequently demand and accept additional responsibility.

These individuals are believed to display these attributes either because they want to or because they have to (Gray, 2004). This prompts another definition of the concept by Gray, saying that “it refers to whether, and how much, a person wants to do something, the amount of effort and care they are prepared to put into it, and how long they are willing to keep on doing it” (p.19). Recognizing the contextual issues associated with motivation, Lathan and Pinder (2005, p.486) simply described motivation as “a psychological process resulting from the interaction between the individual and the environment”. This prompts the need to investigate the working conditions of employees in order to understand their likely motivating state, know the basic needs that require satisfaction and possibly predict their behaviour.

Ryan and Deci (2000, p.54) describe motivation to mean “to be moved to do something”. In their own view, people have different amount/levels of motivation (i.e. how much

motivation) and different orientation of motivation (i.e. what type of motivation – concerns the why or underlying attitude or goals giving rise to the action). The two basic type or orientation of motivation they identified based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to them are intrinsic motivation - referring to doing something because one enjoys doing it or finds it interesting - and extrinsic motivation - refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome (e.g. because of external prods, pressure, or reward). Different types of extrinsic motivation were also identified by the authors, one being a situation where the individual is typically, externally propelled into action, and another, being a situation in which though there is separable outcome or goal, this goal is self-endorsed and therefore adopted with sense of volition by the individual. Ajila and Abiola (2004) citing Ajila (1997) noted that, for an intrinsically motivated person, the extent of his commitment to his job will be determined by the extent to which the job inherently contains tasks that are rewarding to him or her. On the other hand, an extrinsically motivated individual will be committed to his job to the extent that the job will offer him an external reward. According to them, an individual is motivated in a work situation only if there is a need that he feels there is the possibility of satisfying through some reward.

Abraham Maslow (1943) in his theory of human motivation postulates that humans have five basic needs - arranged hierarchically - for optimal existence. In Maslow's own thinking, man is "a perpetually wanting animal" (p.370). The theory which is based on his personal experience describes five sets of human needs arranged according to priority and how their satisfaction motivates individuals. The five sets of needs according to increasing level in the hierarchy include physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, esteem needs and self-actualization. According to the theory, the desire for each of these needs dominates an individual until it is fully or relatively satisfied before the emergence of the need in the next level. The Hierarchy of Needs theory reveals that even if all other needs are satisfied, individuals more often than not feel a sense of restlessness until they find fulfilment in doing what they are potentially capable of doing, becoming more and more of everything they are capable of becoming, a process Maslow referred to as self-actualization (Maslow, 1943). In their review of the progress of work motivation theory and research at the dawn of the twenty-first century, Latham and Pinder (2005, p.487) noted "the resurgence of interest in Maslow's 1943 hierarchy of needs theory". In addition, its relevance and practical application especially in developing countries like Nigeria was also reported. Their review cited the work of the following authors: Wicker et al (1993) who showed that "between goal-correlations and partial correlations across four

samples of college students supported Maslow's theory when intentions to act were rated rather than measures of importance" (p.487); Ronen (2001) who "found support for the taxonomic element of Maslow's theory" (p.487); and Ajila (1997) who found that "employees in four manufacturing companies in Nigeria rated satisfying lower order needs as most important followed by the higher order needs" (p.488). Part of their review is noted as follows:

*Ajila (1997) and Kamalanabhan et al. (1999) argued that the practical significance of Maslow's theory is widely accepted. Physiological needs are considered in decisions regarding space, lighting, and overall working conditions; safety in terms of work practices; love in regard to forming cohesive work teams; esteem through responsibility and recognition; and self-actualization in terms of opportunities for creative and challenging jobs/tasks. This is particularly true in developing countries. Employees in four manufacturing companies in Nigeria rated satisfying lower needs as most important, followed by the higher order growth needs (Ajila 1997). Among bank employees in India, officers attached greater importance to growth needs than did clerks (Rao and Kulkarni 1998). [Latham and Pinder, 2005, p.488].*

Noltmeyer et al (2012) tested the relationship between deficiency needs variables and growth needs variables in an examination of Maslow's model of hierarchy of human needs. The study used 390 economically disadvantaged students, in over 40 schools in Midwestern state, US. They found positive relationship between deficiency needs and growth needs, with health and dental care (a safety need) having the most significant relationship with achievement outcomes. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory suggests that any need could motivate as long as it is not yet satisfied or it is relatively less satisfied. Maslow (1943) also noted the cultural peculiarity as regards the theory.

Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1993, p114) pointed out that "the factors that lead to positive job attitudes do so because they satisfy the individual's need for self-actualization in his work". They indicated the tendency for man to try to actualize himself in every aspect of his life. In work motivation, dominant constructs are seen to be work content, participation, extrinsic factors like salary and fringe benefits, promotion and job security (Ukaegbu, 2000). The Two-Factor Theory of motivation by Frederick Herzberg distinguished between hygiene factors (dissatisfiers) and motivators (satisfiers). The hygiene factors/maintenance or context factors are concerned with the environment in which an employee works or the characteristics of the organizational setting, such as its reward system like salary (Adair, 2009; Wright, 2001), organizational policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, and job security

(Adair, 2009; Ukaegbu, 2000). These hygiene issues do not create satisfaction, though, their absence or inadequacy creates dissatisfaction. The motivators, intrinsic or content factors as relate to the content approach to motivation believes that workers can only be motivated by the work content factors when they have fairly satisfied the maintenance/hygiene factors (Syptak, Marsland and Ulmer, 1999; Ukaegbu, 2000). The content factors include opportunity for achievement, challenging/interesting job, responsibility, growth and development/advancement, and recognition of accomplishment (Adair, 2009; Bratton, 2010). These are “psychological rewards” (Ajila and Abiola, 2004). Their presence creates satisfaction. However, the two-factor theory though appealing to people for understanding motivation in the workplace, has some short-comings. This includes the dichotomization of the work factors into “hygiene” and “motivator” factors, and the non-recognition of individual differences (Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Adair, 2009). For instance, the inclusion of some factors like money and supervision among the hygiene factor has been faulted by some authors like Adair (2009) who believes that money can serve as “a tangible expression of recognition in some spheres” (p.147). Further, he contends that ‘supervision’ (relating to leadership) is more than part of a person’s job context, as it is sometimes an integral part of the job itself. Therefore, it seems imperative to assume that money represents many different things to different individuals. In Nigeria, Ajila and Abiola (2004) found that extrinsic reward like salary and allowances were more important in motivating 100 employees of a branch of Central Bank of Nigeria workers to higher performance than intrinsic reward. This contradicts the generalized assumption that money is a hygiene factor. Though relevant to our understanding of motivation in the context of Central Bank Workers in Nigeria, the study needs to be extended to other organizations.

Motivation is also seen as anything aimed at encouraging employee behaviour towards better performance (Omotoso, 2008). This is because, employee performance is important for organizational success and growth, as well as the growth of the employee (Ajila and Abiola, 2004). Ajila and Abiola’s view is that, in order to understand motivation, consideration should be given to the social meaning of work. That is, understanding that production can be affected by both the short-term goals and the long-term goals of employees and the employers. Therefore, understanding how an employee perceives a particular reward he receives will be more meaningful than the assumption that the same reward for every employee would mean the same.



Ofoegbu (2004) provides another interesting perspective to view motivation. This view regards motivation as “any force that would reduce tension, stress, worries and frustration arising from a problematic situation in a person’s life”. A negative organizational motivation according to the author refers to a situation where these distress conditions are traced to a given organization. The concept was further explained with respect to teachers, seeing it as those factors within the school system that could “hamper performance, cause stress, discontentment and frustration” when not available, leading to “reduction in classroom effectiveness and student quality output”. Frustration and low morale has been identified as one of the problems that had affected the commitment of academics in Nigerian universities in their job (Yaqub, 2007). Therefore, issues of working facilities and other situation at the workplace also suggest some measure of how stimulating the environment is for effective performance. The Two-factor theory postulates that the hygiene factors do not motivate but clean up the work environment by eliminating dissatisfaction before the motivation factors (factors that enable growth towards self-actualization) could bring about satisfaction (Linstead, Fulop and Lilley, 2004). This can be related to some of the issues that have been identified as militating against university education in Nigeria.

According to Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006), some stress inducing factors in Nigerian universities include lack of instructional resources, poor interpersonal relationship among staff and between students and administration, student campus militancy and unmanageable students’ population. They noted that none of the universities, federal, state, or private, could sincerely claim to be enjoying good facilities for teaching, learning, and research. Again, Ukwaiyi, Uko and Udida (2013) found that career stress can generate job dissatisfaction among academics, with high cost of living and inadequate facilities being the main causes among academic staff in tertiary institutions in Cross River State, Nigeria. Also, there was no variation in the causes and challenges (which include reduced performance and productivity) associated with stress across the three universities that constituted the sample used in the study.

Perception of equitable outcome was found to be an important predictor of satisfaction with one’s current salary in a research examining gender differences in the US (Darrah, Hougland and Prince, n.d). Inequity in salary and other conditions of service has been a source of concern to many academic staff in the universities in Nigeria. These discrepancies made ASUU (2004, 2009) call on state governments to fund their

universities well and on the federal government to assist in funding of state universities. This issue of perceived inequality in the universities is related to the considerations in the Equity Theory of Stacy Adams (1963, 1965 cited in Pritchard, 1969; Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004). Pritchard (1969, p.176) noted that Adam's equity "theory and the research related to it has received widespread attention among persons concerned with compensation theories and practices" In the view of Equity theory, workers consider what they perceive as fair treatment in their organization while comparing their rewards and treatment with others or colleagues in similar situation. It is "a process theory which argues that perception of unfairness leads to tension, which then motivates the individual to resolve that unfairness" (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004, p.251). The theory provides a useful understanding about the relationship between rewards and the likely satisfaction that an employee receives from it (Brooks, 2006). The idea of the theory is that employees motivation is likely to take place when they believe that what they put into the organization, i.e. input (may be in the form of knowledge, effort, skills, experience, hours of work, etc.) is comparable to what they receive from the organization, i.e. outcome (could be in form of tangible and intangible factors such as salary and benefits, promotion prospects, job security, recognition of achievement, etc.), creating equity or fairness. That is, in an attempt to balance what they put into their jobs and what they get from them, employees unconsciously assign values to each of their various contributions. Where they perceive that their overall outcome from the organization does not match their contributions or inputs, (i.e. they are under-rewarded), this creates a sense of inequity that could lead to distress and the employee will be motivated to reduce it by taking certain measures. According to Grant and Shin (2011), research findings have consistently shown that under-reward inequity has negative effect on motivation and behaviour.

Hofstede (2000) observed that there is no universal solution to organization and management problems and that, theories, models, and practices are basically culture specific. He indicated that generally accepted US theories like those of Maslow, Herzberg, McClelland, Vroom, and others might not apply or only very partially apply outside the borders of their country of origin. The motivation pattern in different countries given by Hofstede suggests that human resource policies on motivating workers will yield different effects in different countries. This is supported by Weir (2005) who pointed out that differences in culture as well as differences in behavioural norms implies that there are likely to be differing culture of management. The policies may also differ within the same country for different classes of employees. A research by Ifinedo (2004) on motivation

and job satisfaction among Information System Developers (ISD) in Finland, Nigeria and Estonia showed that the western and developing countries will attach different importance to the motivation factor used. Less economically developed country, Nigeria, seemed to place more importance on such intrinsic factors as growth and advancement. Further, pay ranks among the highest source of job dissatisfaction factor for the Nigerian and Estonian (emerging economy) professionals, but occupies a moderate position for Finnish (developed economy) professionals. In another research, Ovadje and Muogboh (2009) after investigating the motivation to stay and to perform among managers in Nigeria concluded that opportunity for development and advancement is the reward managers feel are most relevant for retention and motivation for performance.

Another study by Dada (2006) revealed that the high response rate attributed to the need to earn a living by workers in Nigeria public service sector as reason for working is indicative of the great importance they attach to money. Therefore, he advised that policy formulators need to take this into consideration while deciding on the motivational package of public servants. Further, the highest ranked motivator to work was improved welfare package with increased salary and wages coming a distant second, showing that though salary increment is a necessary condition, it is not a sufficient condition for improved performance.

With regard to working conditions in the public and private sector universities in Nigeria, Fapohunda (2012) found these to differ in the two sectors. While academics in the public sector universities studied by the writer had better job security, flexible working hours, less supervision, freedom of association, lesser workloads, clearer lines of communication and organizational climate; those in the private university sector had better pay package, promotion prospects, opportunities for career training and development programmes in and outside their institutions, regular payment, team work, and more adequate and available resources and equipment. He also found lecturers in the private universities to be more motivated than those in the public sector universities. However, the four universities (public and private) used in the study are located in the same geo-political area of South-western Nigeria and therefore, limit generalization to other universities in other parts of Nigeria. High cost of living and inadequate facilities have been reported by Ukwaiyi, Uko and Udida (2013) as the indicator or cause of stress among academics in some universities in the south-south of Nigerian. They found lack of work resources and workload on the least side or insignificant in causing stress among the academics. All these have implication for satisfaction and motivation of employees to perform and be committed.

### **3.4.1 Satisfaction with Work.**

Motivation has to do with behaviour; satisfaction influences behaviour; and this has a link to organizational effectiveness (Ostroff, 1992; Wright and Davis, 2003). Employee job satisfaction represents the interaction between him and his work environment in order to weigh if what he wants in his job is in harmony with what he receives (Wright and Davis, 2003). Citing Barnard (1938), Wright and Davis (2003) identified two work-related behaviours of interest to organizations that are linked to job satisfaction. These are motivation to join and stay in the organization, and motivation to work hard and well within the organization. They noted that whereas public sector organizations missions are such that provide greater opportunity for employees to achieve higher order needs, these opportunities are hardly realized due to the bureaucratic structure of this sector. Hence, it is often believed that the public sector employees are more dissatisfied with their jobs than the private sector employees. Wright and Davis used a sample of 385 New York State workers in their study of the role of work environment in job satisfaction of public sector employees. Their conclusion from the study suggests that work context may not only be important in distinguishing public and private sector employment, but also, may be “at the root of any sector differences in job satisfaction” (p.70). Ayub (2011) found a relationship between work motivation and job satisfaction among Bank managers in Pakistan. There was, also, a significant gender difference on the variables of work motivation and job satisfaction. Literature in chapter two on the evolution of university education in Nigeria provides a background on events that had shaped the commitment of academic staff in Nigerian university system during the course of its existence. These events ranged from structural to managerial problems and led to the exit of many lecturers from the system, because the work conditions seem to be no longer motivating and satisfying to them. But what is the situation at present with the different reform policies of government? Employees satisfaction with their work is believed to increase when they realize their issues are addressed (Peak Network Consultant, 2011).

Knowing the views of employees about their working conditions and what they consider important in their job is necessary for building a happy and committed workforce that are willing to remain in the organization. However, researches have also shown that to some extent, level of satisfaction is influenced by demographic variables such as gender (e.g., Hodson, 1989; Oshagbemi, 1997; Scott, Swartzel and Taylor, 2005; Srivastava and Chabra, 2012; Ghafoor, 2012) and qualification (e.g. Ghazi, 2011; Srivastava and Chabra, 2012); age (Kacmar and Ferris, 1989; Clark, Oswald and Warr, 1996) and rank

(Oshagbemi, 1997). The nature of these relationships is sometimes confusing as researchers tend to get conflicting findings. For instance, Hunt and Saul (1975) in a survey of white collar workers found that older employees and employees who had been employed longer in an organization (i.e. tenure) have greater or more positive overall satisfaction with their jobs. They described the significant positive relationship between age and tenure with overall job satisfaction of male and female workers as a linear one “contrary to Herzberg’s hypothesized U-shaped relationship” (p.698). Age had a stronger relationship with satisfaction in males than tenure, and the reverse held for female. The association between age and overall job satisfaction was found to be stronger for males than females. They explained their findings using Herzberg’s “modified expectation” (p.699) theory which assumes that workers with realistic work expectation are likely to have greater job satisfaction because their “expectations are more likely to be satisfied on the job” (p.699). According to them, realistic work expectation is believed to develop due to previous work experiences from several organizations which is a function of age, and/or due to current experience from one organization, which is a function of tenure. The report also indicates that when facets are considered, the relationship became complicated. On the other hand, from survey responses of a large sample of British employees, Clark, Oswald and Warr (1996) found a strong evidence for U-shaped relationship between age and job satisfaction. That is, job satisfaction is high at the early years of employment, declining subsequently from a moderate level for some years and then increasing steadily up to retirement. They found this U-shape relationship to be very strong for overall job satisfaction with pay and work itself. Kacmar and Ferris (1989) also reported both U-shape and linear relationships with a sample of 81 all-female nurses. As part of their report, Kacmar and Ferris indicated that the U-shape curvilinear relationship characterised four job satisfaction measures (pay, promotions, supervisor, and co-workers) out of five job satisfaction measures, with the fifth one, work, characterised by a positive linear relationship. With further analysis, Kacmar and Ferris concluded that a U-shape form is more concerned with extrinsic job satisfaction whereas the linear model is more concerned with intrinsic job satisfaction. However, the research has limitations for generalizability. These are the use of only one occupation, nurses and one gender, female. The resulting data could be occupational and gender-specific. Further, the small sample size and cross-sectional nature of the research limits extent of interpretation of findings. In another development, Peak Network Consultants Ltd (2011) found that, though, higher age group seem to be relatively more satisfied, age group does not significantly affect the level of satisfaction among employees of Chuka University; hence, there could be factors common

across the ages that influence employee satisfaction. On the other hand, they found gender difference to be statistically significant with satisfaction, with female employees showing higher level of dissatisfaction compared to male employees. Hodson (1989) found minor differences between genders on job satisfaction for different job evaluation processes such as job characteristics, family responsibilities, and personal expectations, with women showing elements of dissatisfaction in some of the circumstances investigated; Oshagbemi (1997) found female to have higher overall satisfaction among academics in the UK; Srivastava and Chabra (2012) found gender not influencing level of job satisfaction significantly among 80 teacher educators; Ghafoor (2012) found male academics in Pakistan slightly more satisfied than their female counterparts. Kaiser (2005/2007) in a discussion paper found men to be more satisfied in Portugal, no significant gender-job satisfaction difference in Denmark, Finland and Netherland, though in vast majority of the European countries investigated, women workers were found to have a significantly higher level of job satisfaction. However, Darrah, Hougland and Prince (n.d) did not find any correlation between sex and satisfaction with current salary, though modest correlation was found between sex and satisfaction with benefits, and strong correlation between salary satisfaction and perceived equity, and general job satisfaction. They concluded that sex is not a good predictor of satisfaction with regard to one's current salary. In the view of (Kaiser, 2007, p.78), literature suggests that gender issue in job satisfaction can be used as a "proxy for the level of gender-modernization of a labour market regime" with regard to equal conditions and opportunities. Hence, satisfaction can also reflect institutional background. This is important in the current dispensation of call for equal gender opportunities at work, and the need for all and sundry to "tackle the inequalities that persist in our places of work" (Rees, 2003, p.175).

In Turkey, Gurbuz (2007) reported a positive relationship between job satisfaction and educational level among employees of some hotels. In another development, Srivastava and Chabra (2012) found qualification playing a significant role in job satisfaction among teacher educators whereby teachers with NET qualification have very significant higher mean satisfaction than those that do not have the qualification. Ghafoor (2012) reports that academic staff with PhD degree were more satisfied with their job than their counterparts with MPhil, Master and Bachelor (Honours) degrees, in a study of 310 academic staff from 73 public and private universities in Pakistan. On the other hand, Gardner and Oswald (2002) found that "job satisfaction of highly educated people is surprisingly low" despite the fact that high level of education seem to lower mental stress later in life, i.e.

improved psychological health. According to them, the highest level of job satisfaction was found among those with no qualification and lowest among those with degree, that is, average job satisfaction scores decrease with education. The explanation was connected to the assumption that educated people seem to have high aspirations, which may be unrealistic. Somehow related to this is the report by Ghazi (2011) who found no significant difference between job satisfaction of head teachers with Bachelor degrees and those with Masters degrees, though those with Bachelor degrees consecutively had higher scores for almost all the 20 dimensions of job satisfaction studied, suggesting that teachers with higher qualification are the most dissatisfied.

Oshagbemi, (1997) examined the effects of rank on job satisfaction of UK academics. Through analysis of frequency distribution, he found that overall job satisfaction increased progressively with rank. That is, academic staff on higher ranks have higher job satisfaction than their colleagues on lower rank. In Pakistan, Ghafoor (2012) found the job satisfaction of Professors to be higher than those of Lecturers, Assistant Professors and Associate Professors.

Investigating employee working conditions in this study involves understanding the perception of academic staff about their work, knowing their levels of satisfaction with the work and services provided by their institutions and, understanding what factors will make them more inclined to remain in the system. In this study, the working conditions of academic staff in Nigerian universities are investigated on a broad range of issues that are believed to impact on the performance of their job and consequently, on the performance of their institutions. Literature indicates that there is a direct link between employee satisfaction and overall performance of an institution and that, working environment affects employee sense of well-being, health and motivation (Peak Network Ltd, 2011). This referred Network describes employee satisfaction as “employee’s sense of well-being within his or her work environment” (p.1), including a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Getting to know the feelings of employees’ about their working conditions will help understanding of what motivates individuals and what makes them happy in their job.

### **3.4.2 Salary and fringe benefits**

Salary and fringe benefits are pays important in the working lives of employees. However, there has been conflicting reports about the motivational effect of pay. Rynes, Gerhart and

Minette (2004) reviewed evidence highlighting the discrepancies between what people say and what they do with respect to money. They observed that “pay is not equally important in all situations or to all individuals” (p.381) but, pointed to the fact that, it as an important general motivator to employees. From their review, employees appear to respond more effectively to monetary incentives than any other human resource intervention practices. Concluding that pay is a very important motivator, they gave the general theoretical explanation to this to be due to its ability to provide avenues to many other good things in life such as food and shelter, social status, good education for one’s children, or possibility of early retirement with good leisure. In his work for UNESCO, Tahir (2003) observed that low salary and frequent non-payment or delay in payment of salary diminished motivation and morale of teachers in Mozambique, making some of them to leave their institutions. In their research among nurses in a general hospital in Netherlands, Janssen, Jonge and Bakker (1999) observed that condition of employment was the primary determinant of propensity to leave the organization. Such conditions include salary, career opportunities and work content which they reported were found by Rosse and Miller (1984) to be particularly associated with turnover intentions. Further, they cited that growth-related career needs were reported by Lewis and Thomas (1984) as the most frequently mentioned reasons for occupational change. Career opportunities can come in form of having opportunity for development of one’s self such as through such benefits as training, education and development. A situation where some employees feel they are receiving rewards like pay that is lower in comparison with colleagues in the same organization or outside the organization, can create feeling of anger and tension which can affect their behaviour – motivation and satisfaction at work (King and Lawley, 2013). Such feelings can be expressed in the form of reduced commitment, sabotage, relationship difficulties between employees and management, demotivation, and also, union/management problem where a large number of employees hold such perception of inequity. Often, the problems between the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) in Nigeria, - especially the public sector universities - and government and/or management of the institutions, centred on incomparable nature of salary and other working conditions within the national university system. This comparison is in relation to what obtains in other organizational sectors and, with colleagues outside Nigeria (e.g. NUC, 1994; Okecha, 2008). There is the general feeling that their situation is not comparable with those in the other countries, and that the situation in the publicly funded universities might be better than the situation in the self-financing private universities (Ekong, 2002; Okecha, 2008; Erinosh, 2008; ASUU, 2004, 2009). Within the Nigerian university system, the



problem with salary has to do with differential pay scale operated by the universities in the different sectors. While the federal universities enjoy uniform and usually higher salary scale, this scale is not binding on the state and private universities who are left to decide whether they would be able or willing to use such scale.

This study investigates, in part, the level of academic staff satisfaction with various aspects of their working conditions. It understands that the relationship between employee satisfaction and performance is not yet convincing (Blumberg and Pringle, 1982). However, satisfaction is more related to employee turnover, such as quitting from public to private sector or vice versa, or from one profession to another (e.g. Ukaegbu, 2000; Tella, Ayeni, and Popoola, 2007) and this has implication for building a high-performance workforce. From various perspectives on job satisfaction literature, Tella, Ayeni and Popoola (2007, p.5) noted that satisfaction on one's job might be motivated by, among other factors, "the extent to which workers peculiar needs are met". In their survey study of work motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment using 200 library personnel in academic and research libraries in Oyo state in south-west Nigeria, they found a correlation between the three constructs, the correlation between motivation and job satisfaction was positive. However, the research is limited in its inability to establish a casual relation among the variables studied, it was only correlational and cross-sectional in approach. Further, the participants in the study were limited to only library personnel in one state in Nigeria, the findings of which are not generalizable to other states of the federation. However, the research points to the fact that a work environment that offers opportunity for personal and career/professional growth of the employee is likely to bring about inner satisfaction due to the feeling of accomplishment that comes with it. Therefore, investigating working conditions in any organization like the university will likely highlight the motivation state of the employees and what their needs are.

In another study in Nigeria, Fapohunda (2012) investigated pay disparity and pay satisfaction in the public and private sector universities and found that academic staff in the private sector universities receive better pay than their counterparts in the public sector universities. However, pay satisfaction was found to be low in both university sectors, suggesting that, pay disparity and pay satisfaction may not necessarily go together all the time. In his own study, Ukaegbu (2000) found a correlation between extrinsic rewards such as salaries and fringe benefits and organizational commitment of workers in

indigenous private firms in Nigeria. That is, such rewards have implications on workers decisions about remaining in the firms.

### **3.4.3 Career and professional development**

Career and professional development is an important aspect of the working conditions of academics. Ismail and Rasdi (2006?) suggest that an academic should also be concerned about understanding varying styles required for effective learning of the diverse type of students under his or her control than concentrating only on understanding the course content. This calls to mind the issue of career and professional development. Citing Johnsrud and Heck (1998), Tettey (2006) identified three key variables that affect academics and likely to cause their departure from their institutions. These include: i) attack on their professional priorities; ii) lack of confidence that their institutions will support and defend their personal and professional interests; and iii) deterioration in their quality of life. A way of defending the personal and professional interest of academics requires that the academics be supported in various activities that enhance their skills and knowledge for their personal, present and future career growth. This includes training and development. The feeling is that, much attention has not been given in these areas in Nigerian universities as there seems to be poor support for staff sponsorship to conferences and seminars especially abroad (Omotosho, 2007; Okecha, 2008). Fitzgerald (1992, p.81) identified training as one means that can help employees “meet expectations, contribute to their organizations, and experience a high degree of success” all of which “lead to job satisfaction”.

Career development had the highest mean score followed by research related activities as main sources of stress among academic staff in two Nigerian public universities studied by Archibong, Bassey and Effiom (2010). The researchers used survey design to elicit information from 279 academic staff from the rank of assistant lecturer to senior lecturers (excluding professorial cadre, the highest rank in academia). Their study sought to find out, the extent of stress the academics experience in four aspects of their job: interpersonal relationship, teaching, research, and career development. The two main sources of stress identified by the lecturers under career development were sourcing of funds for career development and university conditions/provisions for professional development. For research, this has to do mainly with sourcing for research grant/fund which scored 75.3% among the respondents followed by conceptualization of research problems that scored 45.2% among all the respondents. Presumably, every lecturer in the university is aspiring

to the highest cadre of professorship in the Nigerian university system. Career development is an avenue for achieving this aspiration. In the Nigerian university system, especially the public sector university, getting promoted to the next cadre (hence, increased salary and benefits) up to professorial cadre places great emphasis on research and publication. Therefore, growth on the job (career development) requires that academic staff invest much of their time, effort, finance, etc. in research productivity and publication. The link between career development and research is therefore, quite obvious, and finding the two as the greatest sources of stress among the academics does not come as a surprise based on the information from these researchers. The review of this research is important, in that, the present research is also investigating opportunities for personal growth of the academics in the studied universities. However, considering the small sample of universities used in the reviewed study (only two), the fact that private university is not included in the investigation, and the restriction of the study to a particular geopolitical zone, the south-south zone of the country limits evidence of generalizable nature to the entire academics in Nigerian universities. But the evidence cannot be ignored, only that it requires further investigation.

In a review of current literature on professional development of teachers, Villegas-Reimers (2003, p.19) found that participation in professional-development opportunities may not only afford the teacher individual satisfaction or financial gain, it also has “significant positive impact on teachers’ beliefs and practices, students’ learning, and on implementation of educational reforms”. In consonant with the above view, Tahir (2003) noted in relation to teacher education that, viewed from quality perspectives, its content and method has great implication on outcome of learning. That is, teaching skills and knowledge are important in quality learning outcome. As people engaged in teaching-learning process, academics are supposed to replenish their skills and knowledge for quality graduate output.

#### **(i.) Mentoring**

Mentoring is another way of enhancing the professional development of academics. It is described as a means by which more experienced or senior colleagues can guide individuals to identify their strengths and weaknesses, and support them in developing their full potentials (Applebaum 2000, cited in Tettey, 2006). According to Levesque et al (2005, p.440), any organization investing in mentoring program wants “the development of future leaders and star performers”. But effort in this direction in Nigerian universities at present is reported to be low (Okebukola, 2006). Okurame (2008) examined mentoring

experiences and challenges of 48 academic staff members of a faculty in one of Nigerian universities. He found that only few mentoring relationship existed and at an informal level. Some of the barriers to mentoring identified were “lack of formal structures that encourage mentoring” (p.50) and pressure of administrative work. Giving the fact that the essence of mentoring is to enhance skills and career/professional development of younger academics, improve interpersonal relationship, developing it at a more formal level was considered important by Okurame. This is because, it has been found to invigorate senior faculty, help junior professors learn the ropes, and assist female and minority faculty members in understanding the organizational culture (Luna and Cullen, 1995). Part of the ways through which mentoring empowers the faculty as identified by Luna and Cullen (1995) are teaching and research which improve when junior faculty are paired with mentors, job satisfaction and organization socialization which become greater through the mentoring process. In Nigeria, Okurame and Balogun (2005) found support in the hypothesis that informal mentoring significantly predicts career success of first-line bank managers, accounting for the greatest contribution to career success. Their findings were based on a survey study of 510 first-line managers from 10 banks in four central business districts in Lagos State, Nigeria. In the Nigerian university system, Okebukola (2006) reported that diminished scope of mentoring of junior researchers by seasoned and senior researchers was among the factors that had reduced the quality of research from Nigerian universities. The reduced mentoring was said to have been caused by brain drain in the universities.

## **(ii.) Research**

As part of the training and continued professional development of academic staff, conduct of research is an imperative (Okebukola, 2006). In Malaysia and based on career history research, Ismail and Rasdi (2006?) report the career experiences of 31 women professors within the age of 48 years – ‘high-flying women academics (HFWAs)’ – from eight institutions of higher learning in the country. Part of the responses from their interviews suggests that engagement in research improves teaching quality. That is, active engagement in research helped these HFWAs to be “up-to-date with the current changes in their field” (p.4). Okebukola (2006) identified factors that had resulted in the decline in quality of research activities in the universities in Nigeria from the late 1980s, contrary to its previous position as the best in Sub-Sahara Africa. The factors included lack of equipment to conduct quality research, high teaching load, difficulty in accessing research fund and diminishing scope of mentoring due to brain drain. The findings were similar to those of Tettey (2006) who extended the dimensions of the problem associated with

diminished efforts in research production in African universities, among which is a public sector Nigerian university. These other dimensions include insufficient resources in terms of library holdings, limited internet access, dilapidated laboratory equipment, lack of opportunity for sabbatical leave, poor or lack of mentorship programs, and limited internal research and conference funding. The issue of poor internet connectivity in most Nigerian universities is a frustrating experience and reported by many writers on the situation in Nigerian universities. A newspaper article by Oni (2011) in *Punch* on the web cited the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Education in Nigeria, Dr. Joy Emodi, to have attributed inadequate information and communication technology (ICT) as one of the reasons why the Nigerian universities fail short of global ranking. Her view was that, ICT enhances the work environment as well as facilitate teaching, learning, research and publication. This low ICT installation as observed by the senator was somehow confirmed by the work of Jagboro (2003). Her study investigated internet usage in Nigerian universities and focused on its usage for academic research among post graduate students with a case study of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife. Some of the respondents were junior academic staff in training position. The result showed that out of five sources of obtaining research materials, internet came third with 17.26% as a source of research materials used by the respondents. It was also found that the main access location to the internet was the cybercafé. Overall, Jagboro reported that there was low level of utilization of the internet for academic research in the university studied. This low level was assumed to have been due to the low level of internet connectivity and the high cost of cybercafé facilities - people resort to the use of cybercafé when there is no internet connectivity in the university. The findings called for the need for higher institutions in the country to ensure guaranteed access to the internet as a way of supporting their library holdings of books and journal collections, considering its importance in learning, teaching and research.

One of the mandates of tertiary institutions in Nigeria as indicated in its National Policy on Education (2004) is production of high level relevant manpower for national development. The tertiary institutions were charged to carry out this function and other functions listed in the policy document through teaching, research and development, virile staff development programmes, generation and dissemination of knowledge, among others. Donwa (n.d) while investigating funding of academic research in eight Nigerian universities observed that, the current dispensation in the country's universities suggest that they thrive more as centres for knowledge dissemination; their impact on knowledge

creation through academic research was regarded as insignificant. Factors he identified as responsible for this low level of research in the universities were similar to those reported by Okebukola (2006) and Tettey (2006) but also included defective remuneration system for the university, with a uniform salary for all professors leading to poor reward for those in areas most sought for. Though, the poor engagement in research is believed to be the same across the universities in Nigeria, especially as there are reports of obsolete facilities that no longer support research in the public universities (Chiemeka et al., 2009), some Nigeria scholars believe that the poor situation in terms of research is more prominent in the private universities. For instance, Ajadi (2010, p.23) writing on the challenges facing private universities in Nigeria pointed this out when he noted that “the facilities for staff development and research opportunities are limited in the private universities”, and that their main function is knowledge transmission rather than “contributing to knowledge pool” (p.23). Good research training and motivation, availability of equipment, and good library facilities are essential for conduct of research (Chiemeka et al, 2009).

#### **3.4.4 Governance and Leadership**

Reviews of reports on some of the problems of Nigerian universities have identified governance and leadership of the institutions as one of the main issues (Ekong, 2002; Okebukola, 2005; Okecha, 2008). For instance, Okebukola (2005) noted that ineffective governance contributed largely to the crises in the Nigerian university system. Part of the problem has to do with the high-handedness and authoritarian leadership style of management. One of such problem includes poor or lack of participation of academics in certain decisions like appointments of heads of department as reported by Tettey (2006) causing dissatisfaction among academics. Administrative support machinery has a lot to do with the academic effectiveness of a university (Alabi, 2002). For instance, Okecha (2008) indicates that diminishing development seen in some universities are traceable to hostile administrative system. Many observers of the Nigeria university system from the mid-1970s have lamented the deteriorating situation of its infrastructures and facilities (e.g. Saint, Harnett and Strassner, 2003; Okebukola, 2005), ineffective governance and management (Ekong, 2002; Okebukola, 2005; Okecha, 2008), poor support for research (Okebukola, 2006; Omotosho, 2007).

#### **3.4.5 General Work environment**

For some time, many literature on Nigerian universities suggest that the environment under which academics work are undesirable (ASUU, 2004; Okebukola, 2006, 2010;

Okecha, 2008). Part of the problem includes overload of teaching and administrative schedules which do not allow much time for research (Okebukola, 2006). In his review of literature, Egbule (2003) reported that all the commissions set up to review the salaries and conditions of service of university lecturers in Nigeria observed existence of stress in all the categories of the universities. He cited Olaitan (1987) who investigated the dimensions of jobs which academic staff in a Nigerian university were satisfied or dissatisfied with, and found that they were not satisfied with their working conditions and academic growth. Different dimensions of stress were also reported by Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) among Nigerian academic staff.

According to Chandrasekar (2011), work environment impacts on the morale of employees, their productivity and engagement, hence, affects performance of the organization. The author observed that work environment factors such as poor office space fails to provide means for effective work habits and poor furnishing makes employees feel unsophisticated at work. This type of situation has implication on employee behaviour and since behaviour drives performance, organizational performance could be affected. Cordiality between management and workers and perceptions about promotion, job security and welfare were among work factors that Ukaegbu (2000) found to be influential in making workers feel like remaining in the organization in his study on private indigenous firms in Nigeria.

Stress and low morale among academics have been associated with some of the working condition issues in the universities. For instance, tracing the problem of brain drain in Nigerian universities, Yaqub (2007) indicates that the cumulative effects of shortage in funding universities with simultaneous increased student enrolment were shortages in accommodation, classrooms, inadequate library stock, etc. Coupled with unavailability of other essential needs of the academics, the situation led to lower morale that resulted to exit of some of the academics from the university system in Nigeria. Issue of high workload which affects the time for research (e.g. Okebukola, 2006) and other personal issues of academic staff have been reported. Ajayi et al (2011) found work environment having a positive correlation with performance of academic staff in South-West Nigerian universities. With a sample of 1142 academic staff selected from the federal, state and private universities in Nigeria, Egbule (2003) investigated some factors related to job satisfaction of academic staff in Nigerian universities using questionnaire. He discovered that though the level of job satisfaction of the lecturers in the universities had increased

over the past five years, the lecturers were not yet satisfied with some aspects of their working conditions. He found that federal university lecturers recorded a higher mean score on job satisfaction than those in the state and private universities. Another finding was that sex and university status significantly influenced the level of job satisfaction. While the lecturers in the federal universities were satisfied with 11 out of the 12 related job satisfaction factors selected and dissatisfied only with university autonomy, the lecturers in the state universities recorded dissatisfaction with the physical working environment and university autonomy. On the other hand, the private university lecturers were dissatisfied with pay/salary, job security and staff development programmes. A major similarity between Egbule's work and this present research is that both studied the three university sectors in Nigeria. Therefore, Egbule's research is a good insight into what is happening in the three university sectors. The improvement in satisfaction level of the staff was believed to be due to improvement in salaries and allowances of teachers in the universities that period of study and "enthronement of democracy and freedom of speech in Nigeria" (p.162). Egbule's study is again relevant to the present study in that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a product of the working conditions of an employee. Though the study provides a good indication of the satisfaction state of the academics at the period of study, it is limited in its cross-sectional nature being that satisfaction is seen as a dynamic process that is affected by many factors. Therefore, level of an employee satisfaction with his or her job may change over time. Strengthening of the findings through longitudinal study would have been able to provide a more confirmatory result. This present study departs methodologically from Egbule's research in approach in that it first used qualitative interviews in generating factors incorporated in the quantitative inquiry; hence, there are variations in the factors incorporated in the research. The present research also incorporated qualitative aspects that dealt with issues on personal growth of academic staff and those on decision to remain in the universities. The performances of the university sectors under the set of conditions during the period of study were also investigated. Delay and irregular payment of salary and state of lecturers' office accommodation were among the factors that Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) identified to be sources of stress among public sector Nigerian academics.

#### **3.4.6 Teaching Resource and Facilities**

In their study of academic achievement of students in two modes of part-time programme (on-campus and out-reach institutions) in three Nigerian universities, Adeyemi and Osunde (2005, p.11) concluded that "increasing access may result in the provision of



substandard facilities and less than optimal teaching situations”. This can affect the morale of academics and impact on their willingness to remain in the system (e.g. Buckley, Schnider and Shang, 2004; Tettey, 2006; Yaqub, 2007) and quality of the products of the institutions (e.g. Dabalen, Oni and Adekola, 2000). Both local and international studies of the current state of Nigerian universities have generally reported poor state of the teaching resources and facilities (e.g. Moja, 2000; Saint, Harnett and Strassner, 2003). The inadequacies are generally in such areas as teaching and research facilities, libraries, information communication and technology, laboratories, classroom space, mentoring, etc. (Moja, 2000; Okebukola, 2005, 2006; Ogwuche, 2008). The inadequacies in these facilities affect both teaching and research efforts of academics. For instance, the former Executive Secretary of NUC, Professor Peter Okebukola (2006) identified facilities for teaching, learning, research, management and domiciliation as important input in the university system. He identified those important for teaching, learning and research as classrooms, theatres, laboratories, workshops, office space, library and other specialized rooms, including appropriate equipment. His report was that over 70% of the universities hardly met the space requirements for classroom, lecture theatres, laboratories and workshops due to large enrolment, making the facilities overstretched. Also, inadequate equipment in terms of number and operational status was also evident.

In Nigeria, Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) commented that “there is growing evidence that there are really no universities private, state or federal that will genuinely claim to enjoy the basic facilities for teaching, learning and research”. Their study of stress among public sector university lecturers in Nigeria showed that lack of instructional facilities and facilities for research were among sources of stress. Oyeniya (2010) analyzed educational facilities in four public sector universities in southern Nigeria and found that the basic educational facilities in terms of classroom/lecture theatre, volume of books available in the libraries, laboratories/studio/workshop, and computers were grossly inadequate. The research report showed that the generation of the universities, their specialization (conventional or non-conventional), and ownership did not significantly influence availability of the facilities i.e. there was no significant difference in the level of availability of the facilities at the three levels of analysis. He related the findings to those of Ajeyalemi (1987) that observed high student/teacher ratio as one of the problems of science education at tertiary level in Nigeria, Oguntoye (1987) who reported that there was short supply of books and equipment with high foreign exchange content at the tertiary level. While Oyeniya’s research was in the south-south geo-politics of Nigeria, Fabiyi and Uzoka (2008) conducted almost a similar study with two public sector universities in

Lagos, south-western zone. Their main aim was to examine the state of physical resources in the face of increased students' placement. Examination of variety of issues identified problem areas associated with the provision of physical facilities in the universities. The problems were said to emanate from the planning stage. The primary problem in this instance is non-involvement of the heads of departments who should be closer to the point of implementation of educational programmes in the identification and provision process of the facilities required by their departments. Findings by Buckley, Schnider and Shang (2004) showed the importance of facilities in teaching profession. They found quality of facilities as one of the factors predicting teachers' intention to leave their job.

While studying the quality of Nigeria private universities using three of such universities, Erinosho (2008) noted that academic programmes run by the private universities are not as diversified as those in the public universities. Most of their degree programmes are in market-driven courses, mainly in social and management sciences that attract more students. Also, the private university teachers are believed to be more of those with masters than doctorate degree holders. Another observation was that most of the staff in these universities were not interested in spending the rest of their career in these institutions. Most of the academics in two of the universities were very eager to leave their institutions to other ones due to conditions of service and inadequacy in all that it takes to provide quality education. Findings from the research especially as regards low programme diversification made Erinosho conclude that the private universities in Nigeria are not capable of replacing/filling the gap created by the publicly funded universities, nor will they effectively meet the national objectives for higher education. He suggested that, for a low-income country like Nigeria, it would be of public interest to continue to invest in public universities while at the same time encouraging the private ones. Though the reviewed study provides a picture of the likely situation in some of the private universities in Nigeria which had also been a source of concern in some literature on Nigerian universities, it is limited by its sample size of private universities in Nigeria and cross-sectional nature. A sample size of three out of over 26 private universities may not be enough to generalize the situation in the private university sector. Private university is a relatively new sector in the university education system in Nigeria. Basing their assessment at this moment on a cross-sectional study may limit good insight into the actual desirability of the education they provide. A longitudinal study is likely to provide a more confirmatory situation in the sector. Further, a comparative assessment with some public universities would have provided a better picture of the situation. However, the information provided by the research should not be disregarded, only that more

confirmatory studies are warranted to extend knowledge on possible areas of concern. However, limited facilities for staff development and research in the private universities were also reported by Ajadi (2010a) who further noted that if the conditions of service in this university sector remain unattractive, it might end up having limited number of academic staff in the future. Obadara (2012) as well as Ajadi (2010a) observed that the private universities operate with limited number of regular members of staff. Many of their lecturers were said to be drawn from the public sector universities on part-time basis.

There seems to be little empirical investigation on working conditions of academic staff in Nigerian universities. However, we are grateful to the few scholars that have carried out works in this area. Being that satisfaction with working conditions could change over time, it is important that universities and researchers in Nigeria continue to evaluate the feelings of academic staff about aspects of their work. This will help find out areas of dissatisfaction, a situation that could have implication on performances of the institutions in different respects (Peak Network Consultants Ltd, 2011), and as such, may impact on the nation's development. This study assumes that the federal, state and private universities in Nigeria operate under different ownership and therefore, different sources of financing and managerial orientation. Therefore, it is expected that the managerial interest as regards issues concerning staff are likely to differ. Also, the basic concerns of academic staff in these universities regarding their work are also expected to differ. It is the assumption of this research that these differences would bring about some variation in the level of academic staff satisfaction among the three university sectors. Since the universities are operating under the same national culture, there is likely to be closely related interests among the academics as to what would keep them on their job.

### **3.5 Working Conditions, Commitment and Performance**

There is the feeling that most of the problems of employee performance at the workplace have to do with the environment under which they carry out their assigned jobs and not with the employees (Ripley, 1999; Akinyele, 2010). Consequently, organizations are advised to fix the system under which employees work. Theoretical literatures further suggest that behaviour of individual employees within an organization has significant implication for its performance (Huselid, 1995). Huselid reports from his study of 968 American firms that, human resource management practices such as training impart on employee skills. His study confirmed previous assertions that effective human resource management practices enhance firm performance. He found that such practices are

associated with outcomes such as lower employee turnover and greater productivity, and greater corporate performance. Afful-Broni (2012) reported that low monthly salaries and the general lack of motivation were the key factors that reduced morale for high performance in a university in Ghana. In another development, Carmeli and Tishler (2004) observed in a sample of local government authorities in Israel that, organizational performance can be explained by a set of six intangible organizational elements or resources. These resources include managerial capabilities – such as its technical; human and conceptual skills; human capital – such as their education level; labour relations – such as if there is positive relationship between management and the employees and/or their representative; and perceived organizational reputation – such as how the organization is viewed by outsiders, among others. That is, these intangible elements and their direct and interactive effects strongly affect the performance of the local authorities. Tahir (2003) noted that disparity in salary and poor welfare for teachers are among the “cross-cutting issues” (p.17) affecting teacher training institutions in Mozambique, with low salary causing the exit of some of them for other professions. Cross-cutting issues as he explained have to do with some issues that can “enhance or distort the path to achieving institutional goals” (p.17).

Through a meta-analysis based on 98 samples, Cohen (1992) examined whether “the relationships between organizational commitment and its antecedents differ across occupational groups” (p.539). The groups were made up of white collar employees (subdivided into professionals and nonprofessionals) and blue collar employees. One of his findings is that income “demonstrated stronger relationship with organizational commitment for professionals than for nonprofessionals” (p.553), indicating the importance of extrinsic reward to this group of employees in matters of organizational commitment. Further, negative relationship found between education and organizational commitment was stronger for blue collar workers than white collar employees, that is, less educated blue collar employees appear to be more committed than educated white collar employees. Part of his findings also seems to suggest that “specific job aspects are as important for nonprofessionals as for professionals, while more generic aspects of the job that reflect typical expectations of professionals, would affect their organizational commitment more strongly” (p.552).

MacPherson and Pabari (2004) defined performance in terms of effectiveness, efficiency and financial viability. According to them, an effective organization is one that has been

able to successfully meet its purpose. This purpose is defined in terms of mandate, goals, charter, mission and strategic objectives. They identified the following factors as affecting the performance of organizations: a) external factors; b) internal motivation which, among others, include its values and incentive systems which “affect the quality of work, the nature of how the organization competes, and the degree of involvement of internal stakeholders in decision-making process” (p.9); c) capacity, including among others, leadership, governance, human resources, infrastructure, inter-institutional linkages and some others. On the other hand, Aluko (2003, p.172) defined performance as: “the execution or accomplishment of work, task or goals to a certain level of desired satisfaction”. He further defined organizational performance in terms of how an organization is able to satisfy its three main stakeholders: the owners, employees and customers. Four parameters he identified for measuring this performance include: a) owners satisfaction with financial returns from the organization; b) employee satisfaction with the conditions of work; c) employees’ expressed desire to remain in the organization or staff retention and; d) customers’ expressed satisfaction with the quality of the products of the organization.

An investigation into the labour market prospects of university graduates in Nigeria was conducted by Dabalen, Oni and Adekola (2000). The investigation was based on analysis of labour statistics and interviews with 55 employers (managers) of labour drawn from public enterprises, private firms, professional associations and non-governmental organizations. Their work revealed that the quality of education received by these graduates is declining. The researchers cited some of the employers stating that “some recent graduates do not have even the basic skills” and that “the last well-trained corps of Nigerian graduates left the system in the mid-1980s” (p.21). The decline in quality was attributed to inadequate financing; poorly paid staff, inadequately trained/poor staff quality (reflected in high rates of “brain drain”, declining number of professors and assistant professors and decline in levels of post-graduate preparation); insufficient and irrelevant learning materials, old and outdated equipment, books and journals; inflexible managerial structures; high enrollment and; irrelevant curriculum all of which have implication for worker performance and commitment.

Much of the empirical work on employee working conditions and performance focused mainly on few individual factors and their relationship with employee outcome to the exclusion of other working conditions elements and their impact on organizational performance as a whole. This current study is looking at a lot of issues about working conditions that are likely to impact on performance at the organizational level, taking into

consideration, some performance indicators of universities. Much of these other works related to the present topic in Nigeria seem not to be deeply researched. The few empirical studies have provided good evidence in understanding the relationship between some aspects of working conditions of employees, organizational commitment and performance. However, this current research departs from these previous studies in that it is studying working conditions and performance in a more comprehensive manner, focusing on performance of the organization as a whole in core organizational goal areas. Further, the present study depart methodologically from most of the previous researches in related topic in that it is using multiple methods in gathering information in order to obtain more valid results. Whereas most works such as this were conducted in western and more developed economies, this present work is done in Nigeria, a developing economy.

The conditions or factors which have been revealed in the study by Dabalen, Oni and Adekola (2000) as the major sources of poor performance of the universities in Nigeria had on several occasions resulted in labour-management disputes that led to industrial strike action (ASUU, 2004, 2009; Yaqub, 2007; Okecha, 2008). This brings about the issue of labour-management relationship in the universities and the implication for performance. The assumption that cooperative labour-management relationship increases organizational productivity was confirmed by Deery and Iverson (2005). The feeling that employee relations climate in the service sector is critical to the quality of service delivery prompted them to undertake a research to investigate the antecedent and impact of labour-management cooperation on organizational performance. They used 305 branches of a large unionized Australian bank. The result of the longitudinal study showed that “a cooperative labour-management relationship contributed to higher productivity and improved customer service” (p.588). That is, in those branches where there seems to be cooperation between labour and management, the unionized employees appeared to be more willing to exert greater productive efforts and to provide more quality customer services. Further, the study found cooperative labour relation to be associated with greater commitment to the organization. Though the public universities in Nigeria have pronounced, well-organized and powerful unions under the general umbrella of Academic Staff Union of Universities, there appears to be weak presence of workers union in the private universities in Nigeria. Fapohunda (2012) found that freedom of association was low in the private universities in a study of pay discrepancy and job satisfaction in the public and private universities in Nigeria. The private universities have been reported to allow at best, only loose associations with strict guidelines. This was pointed out by Fatunde (2010) in an article in the University World News of 12<sup>th</sup> April. The article

quoted a Nigerian Governor stressing the need for private universities to allow their staff and students to engage in trade unionism, stating that, “it sharpens the mind”.

In their examination of the relationship between work environment and performance of academic staff in eight universities in the South-West Nigeria, Ajayi et al (2011), found a significant relationship between work environment and performance of the academic staff. Using two sets of questionnaire instruments, 1500 respondents comprising 500 academic staff who completed the Work Environment Questionnaire and 1000 students who completed the Job Performance of Academic Staff Questionnaire, the researchers discovered that academic staff found their work environment favourable and students’ responses indicated that academic staff performed their job well. A significant relationship was found between academic staff work environment and their performance. The reviewed research is relevant to this study in that both are trying to ascertain the academic staff perception of factors that impact on their work. Both looked at performance but in different perspectives. While the reviewed research looked at performance at the employee level and trying to establish relationship between it and working environment of the employees, the present research looked at performance at an organizational level trying to find out differences in the level of performance between institutions. Also, though the respondents in the study were selected across the three university sectors in the country in both studies, they were treated as a single sample in the reviewed research unlike in the present study where the respondents from each university sector are treated as both single and separate samples. Another area of departure is that the reviewed research covered only universities in the South-West of Nigeria which is only a section of the Southern region of Nigeria, thereby limiting extent of generalization of result from the study to academics in other regions. The present study tries to extend its findings further by focusing on universities from the entire regions of the country. The reviewed study is further limited by its cross-sectional nature as in the present study.

Studying working conditions of academic staff in Nigeria in this research involves knowing the level of their satisfaction with the various factors that has to do with effective delivery of their academic functions, which has implication on their sense of accomplishment and advancement in their career. It also involves understanding what the academics need to keep them on their job. The satisfaction level of the academics shows the extent they believe their motives or needs would or have been met at work. This would lead to behaviour that could be positive or negative to the performance of their institutions. Therefore, satisfaction helps in determining the “the necessary conditions for optimal employee motivation” (Wright, 2001). However, work motivation has also been

identified as a difficult concept to study (Wright, 2001; Nohria, Groysberg and Lee, 2008). In fact, Nohria, Groysberg and Lee (2008, p.80) had warned managers planning to boost motivation that “it’s hard to argue with the accepted wisdom – backed by empirical evidence – that a motivated workforce means better corporate performance”. Rather, the question should be how to increase overall motivation of employees by satisfying four basic emotional needs or drives: drives to acquire, bond, comprehend, and defend. Wright (2001) has also observed that performance has often been used as a proxy for work motivation without considering other determinants of performance such as environmental characteristics (e.g. situational constraint and task demand); Ostroff (1992) included interaction of processes. As such, motivation is believed to have a limited role in determining performance. If that is the case, any measure of the relationship between the two constructs, working conditions and performance may likely vary among people and places. Nohria, Groysberg, and Lee (2008) identified four commonly measured indicators of overall work motivation to include engagement, satisfaction, commitment, and intention to quit. It is therefore, important to study working conditions of employees and assess employee perceptions of them in order to know their level of satisfaction with the factors that affect their job. Examination of what employees want from their job and what they are getting provides information on their need deficiencies capable of instigating goal directed behaviour (Jurkiewicz, Massey and Brown (1998, cited in Wright, 2001).

On the other hand, satisfaction is contrasted from motivation in that it has to do with a “state of contentment” which might not necessarily relate to action (Therkildsen and Tidemand, 2007, p.2). This assertion by Therkildsen and Tidemand intuitively suggest that satisfaction does not necessarily translate to performance. However, Ostroff (1992) inputs that satisfaction influences behaviour, and that organizational effectiveness is a product of that behaviour. According to her, failure to establish satisfaction-performance relationship in many studies could be because they concentrated mainly on individuals within an organization than looking at the relationship at the organizational level. This is because; measurement of organizational effectiveness reflects a combination and interaction of different processes and organizational behaviours that enhance performance of that organization. These combinations and interactions are not accounted for at the individual level. Her position was confirmed by her research on the relationship between satisfaction, attitude, and performance. The research was done with a sample of 364 secondary schools from 36 states in Canada. A survey method was used for data collection. Her research question was “whether the overall level of satisfaction or attitudes



of employees within organizations is related to organizational performance” (pp.965-966). Measures for school performance were based on two broad categories: student satisfaction and student productivity. The broad categories included achievement test scores, attendance rates, discipline problems, vandalism, and retention rates. These were based on the five major goal areas of schools that included academic achievement, student behaviour, student satisfaction, teacher turnover, and administrative performance. These were used to assess organizational performance. Results from analysis of the data collected produced significant correlation in the expected direction between satisfaction and nearly every performance measure, i.e. organizations with more satisfied employees seemed to be more effective than organizations with less satisfied employees. Also, the relationship was found to be stronger than those that had been found at the individual level. The results prompted the suggestion that emphasis on satisfaction-performance relationship be shifted to organizational level. It is important to point out that the generalization of the result may be limited to the domain of the study, Canada. This is in view of differences in socio-cultural background that may not permit extension of the results to locations outside Canada. The reason being that what satisfies people seem to differ in different countries (Greenberg and Baron, 2003). Furthermore, as a correlational research, the causal direction of satisfaction-performance linkage is not known. As such, it could also mean that the employees were satisfied because of the performances of their organization and not the other way round. However, this also shows that performance and satisfaction are related (Ostroff, 1992). Further, other factors like random error could as well have affected the result.

### **3.5.1 Organizational Commitment**

As managers and organizational analysts seek ways of enhancing employee retention and performance, increased attention has been given in research literature to organizational commitment of employees (Steers, 1977). Steers defined organizational commitment as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Porter et al (1974) provide tripartite conceptualization or characteristics of organizational commitment as (a) belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values, (b) willingness to exert considerable effort toward accomplishment of organizational goal, and (c) strong desire to maintain organizational membership. On the other hand, Meyer and Allen (1991) provide three minds sets of looking at employee commitment to the organization, arguing that, commitment is a psychological state and has at least three separable components. These three states are related yet distinguishable

from one another (Meyer et al, 2002). According to Meyer and Allen (1991) three-component framework or model, commitment reflects:

(a) a desire – that is, affective commitment. This has to do with an employee's relationship with the organization; referring to his or her “emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (p.67). If employees have strong affective commitment to remain in the organization, this is because they “want to do so” (p.67);

(b) a need – continuance commitment. That is, decision to continue or discontinue with membership in the organization. It relates to gain versus loss or cost of leaving the organization. Employees whose reasons for remaining in the organization are based on continuance commitment do so because they “need to do so” (p.67). According to Meyer and Allen, “anything that increases the cost associated with leaving an organization has the potential to create continuance commitment” (p.77); and

(c) an obligation – normative commitment. It deals with an employee's “feeling of obligation” to remain with the organization. Strong normatively committed employees remain in employment because of the feeling that they “ought to do so” (p.67). That is, moral obligation to maintain membership even in the face of more attractive alternatives. This could develop from feeling of loyalty to the organization and consideration of the resources that the organization had invested on the individual. It arises from an obligation to do what is right.

In conceptualizing the three approaches, Meyer and Allen pointed out that common to all the three is the view that commitment is a psychological state that describes an employee's relationship with the organization, and has implications for employee decision to continue or discontinue his/her membership of the organization. Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe (2004, p.994) noted that historically, both motivation and commitment theory had been developed to “understand, predict, and influence employee behaviour”, but commitment theorists had concentrated more on using it to explain retention and turnover.

Managing people in the workplace so that they help organizations achieve their goals is an important and challenging function of human resources management. Organizational commitment of employee is vital for an organization's effectiveness (Arthur, 1994). Equally, the growth of any organization is also vital to the growth of the employee (Ajila and Abiola, 2004). Therefore, it is important that organizations engage in high-commitment work practices. Great interests in organizational commitment in the body of literatures recognize that it is important for many reasons. These include the facts that it

has been found to be related to (a) employee behaviour such as job search activities, turnover, attendance - though weak, performance (Porter et al, 1974; Angle and Perry, 1981; Meyer et al, 2002); (b) attitudinal constructs such as job satisfaction and job involvement (Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Porter et al, 1974); (c) personal characteristics, job characteristics, work experience such as age, sex, education, job tenure, and so on (Angle and Perry, 1981; Steers, 1977; Greenberg and Baron, 2003). Moreover, there is the belief that organizational commitment is more relatively stable attitude overtime than job satisfaction (Porter et al, 1974; Bateman and Stresser, 1984), thereby, making it very ideal to have good understanding of the construct. As Steers (1977) pointed out, these understanding have implication for management practices. A study by Elizur (1996) on work values and commitment in Israel found that certain work values are correlated with commitment. The study used 144 randomly picked adult Israelis responding to a questionnaire containing 24 work values and a commitment statement: "if a similar job were suggested in another place, would you leave to take the offer?" (p.27). The result showed that, though the correlations were generally low, many intrinsic work values - such as advancement, achievement, and others - and pay showed positive correlation with commitment. Remarkably, pay showed a relatively high correlation with commitment.

Based on a study of 111 small companies, Collins, Ericksen and Allen (2005) concluded that a higher use of human resource practices is directly related among others, to higher levels of commitment and lower intentions to leave. This underscores the importance of working conditions in employee motivation. Working conditions constitute an important subject matter in organizational literature, because, most factors of work act as incentives which individual employees may perceive differently (Ukaegbu, 2000). According to Ukaegbu (2000, p.298), "poor working conditions find expression in the spontaneous abandonment of organizations by employees". This kind of expression is a sign of lack of commitment. Employees' attitudes toward their job (job satisfaction) and organization (organizational commitment) have great influence on the way they perform (Greenberg and Baron, 2003). Specifically, Greenberg and Baron noted that these work-related attitudes "are associated with many important aspects of organizational behaviours, including job performance, absence from work, and voluntary turnover" (p.148). Again Porter, Steers and Mowday (1974, p.604) drawing evidence from the work of other scholars have indicated that "a stated intention to remain with the organization, a component of commitment, is strongly and inversely related to turnover". Their longitudinal studies with psychiatric technicians showed that leavers were characterized

by lower levels of commitments and satisfaction throughout the period of the research. It all means that commitment can be used to predict employees' turnover intention as well as the extent they are likely to put a great deal of energy in helping the organization achieve its objectives. Therefore, employees' satisfaction and commitment have implication for voluntary turnover or quit (Greenberg and Baron, 2003; Currivan, 1999) which is costly to an organization.

Research literatures such as those of Porter et al (1974) and Martin and Shore (1989) suggest that "commitment is often a better predictor of turnover than satisfaction" (Steers, 1977, p.46). A study among 382 hospital employees and 119 scientists and engineers by Steers (1977) showed that for both samples, personal characteristics, job characteristics and work experiences had influence on commitment. Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) identified salary as part of the major considerations of academics in making decisions about their work, one of which is intention to leave. Demographic variables such as gender, academic attainment, and job satisfaction among others were found to have predictive effect on intention to leave or remain in the organization among employees of six private universities in Ogun state, Nigeria, with educational qualification appearing as the most influential factor predicting organizational commitment and turnover intention (Adenguga, Adenuga and Ayodele 2013). Also in Nigeria, Adekola (2012) found organizational commitment score to be higher for public sector university employees than private sector university employees in Nigeria. His explanation for this result is that "public universities seem to provide higher level of perceived job security and there is a well-defined system to hire and retrench employees from the organization" (p.11). As such, public sector universities are more able to provide this kind of "psychological security" to their employees than the private universities where, as a result, employees tend to have "pseudo" commitment. In the west, Steers (1977) found commitment to be influenced by need for achievement and education among other factors. Education was found to have an inverse relationship with commitment in his study with samples of 382 hospital employees and 119 scientists and engineers. That is, highly educated employees are more likely to be less committed to the organization, probably because it may be difficult for the organization to provide sufficient reward. He also found that work experiences were more closely related to commitment than personal or job characteristics in both samples. Ovadje and Muogboh (2009) found that opportunity for development and advancement are factors that managers in Nigeria considered most relevant for retention and motivation for performance. Since promotion, related to advancement, is based on

assessment of an employee performance in the organization, it implies that it will fulfil the need for increased status, and also esteem because it is associated with recognition. Therefore, studying employee perception of their working conditions and organizational commitment of any organization such as the university is important. It gives an idea about what influence worker performance, likelihood to quit the organization, and a lot of other organizational issues.

Organizational commitment of employee is vital for an organization's effectiveness (Arthur, 1994). Equally, the growth of any organization is also vital to the growth of the employee (Ajila and Abiola, 2004). Therefore, it is important that organizations engage in high-commitment work practices. The study by Arthur (1994) on effect of HR systems on manufacturing performance and turnover shows the importance of employee commitment. His finding tends to indicate that organizations that use commitment human resource systems have higher productivity and lower employee turnover than those with control system. According to his review of his previous research in 1992, organizations using commitment system are characterized by high level of employee involvement in decision-making, formal participation programs, training in group problem solving, and socializing activities among others. A review by Whitener (2001) describes human resource commitment practices as those that are intended to increase effectiveness and productivity, relying on conditions that encourage employees to identify with the goals of the organization and work hard to accomplish the goals. This is in contrast to human resource control practices, which Arthur (1994) describes as aiming to increase efficiency and reduction of direct labour costs, relying on strict rules and procedures, basing rewards on outputs. Whitener's review shows that control practices control behaviour using rules, sanctions, reward and monitoring. Among the high commitment practices enumerated include competitive and equitable compensation, and comprehensive training and development activities. Hence, it seems that substantial evidence exist showing that organizations with high commitment practices experience greater productivity, financial performance, and effectiveness than those with low commitment or control practices as shown by the works of some other scholars such as Arthur (1994); Huselid (1995); and Delaney and Huselid (1996). Becker et al (1996) also found that overall commitment to supervisors is significantly and positively related to performance, again suggesting a link between commitment and performance.

Allen and Meyer (1990, p.1) specifically noted that “Common to all the conceptualizations of commitment found in the literature is a link with turnover; employees who are strongly committed are those who are least likely to leave the organization”. Also, the remaining and highly committed employees are willing to make sacrifices that would help organizations achieve their objectives (Greenberg and Baron, 2003). In their earlier research testing the side-bet theory, Meyer and Allen (1984) found that age and tenure significantly correlated with affective commitment and not with continuance commitment component confirming the findings of Porter et al (1974); Steers (1977) that suggest that employees who are older and those who have stayed longer with an organization show stronger affective commitment to it and are more satisfied with their job (Hunt and Saul, 1975).

Currihan (1999) citing Mueller and Lawler (1996) pointed out that working conditions cause positive or negative emotions in employees. Such emotions affect their attachment to the source responsible for the emotions, such as the organization. Researches related to employees working conditions and commitment tend to suggest that the value employees place on some work factors or rewards can affect their level of commitment to their organizations (Malhotra, Budhwar and Prowse, 2007), thereby, suggesting the importance of good working conditions for motivating employees. Attractive working conditions are expected to be incentives that would encourage employees to remain in their organizations and perform effectively (Wiskow, Albrecht and Pietro, 2010). Wiskow and colleagues noted for instance, that, the main drivers for departure among health workers include such factors as low pay, lack of resources, poor working conditions, limited education and career opportunities, among others.

In Nigeria, Ukaegbu (2000) studied the relationship between working conditions and employee commitment in twenty indigenous private owned manufacturing companies in south-eastern states of Nigeria. Questionnaires, interviews and observation were the mode of his data collection. He found that most of the workers were dissatisfied with the extrinsic and equity factors of their work which are stronger predictors of employee commitment, than intrinsic/responsibility factors. The extrinsic and equity factors include factors such as salary, benefits, promotion, job security and opportunity for training. Equity issue, specifically structural equity as to do with organizational policy on reward was found to be the main reason why the workers move from one job to another. Ubom (2002) as reported by Fapohunda (2012) noted that prompt payment of salaries and other benefits enhance motivation and commitment.

Spreitzer and Porath (2012) noted that for sustainable individual and organizational performance, employees should have the opportunity to “thrive”. Their description of thriving workforce is one that is satisfied, productive, and engaged in creating their own future and that of the organization. Two components of thriving were given as vitality: which is generated when an employee has the feeling that his job makes a difference; and learning: described as growth that comes from gaining new knowledge and skills, bestowing technical advantage and status as experts. Therefore, an organization that offers the workforce the opportunity to learn and grow is likely to have better overall performance. Across industries and job types studied by Spreitzer and Porath, those that fit this description were found to generate 16% better overall performance, demonstrate 125% less burn out than their peers. They were also 32% more committed to the organization and 46% more satisfied with their job. The researchers indicated that some employees thrive no matter the context of their job, but that most employees are influenced by their environment. The relevance of this referred research to the present study lies in its ability to point out the need for management of organizations to make working environment conducive for employees to achieve their personal aspiration or growth on the job which, invariably, would also benefit the organization in areas such as employee commitment and productivity. These are part of the issues investigated by the present research.

Johnsrud and Heck (1998) revealed that three broad concerns or variables impart on the lives of academic staff and predict their decision to stay or leave. These include attack on their professional priorities, such as decisions about what and how to teach and method of their research; lack of confidence that their institutions would support and protect their personal and professional interests, such as good departmental relationship; and erosion or deterioration of their quality of life, connected with issues such as unfair salaries, lack of facilities and support personnel, lack of support sources such as graduate assistants, library services, computing services, among others. All these, they found to be important to faculties and perceived as instrumental to their advancement and retention.

In public services in Nigeria, including the universities, salaries are not negotiated on an individual basis. It has been established that one way organizations can use to motivate and retain their employee and enhance organizational performance is to provide competitive pay (Ovadjie and Muogboh, 2009). Dissatisfaction with salaries was found to be a key factor that has negatively affected the commitment of academic staff to their institutions and careers in a case study of five Anglophone universities in sub-Saharan

Africa that included a Nigerian university (Tettey, 2006). Economic incentives were also found to be grossly inadequate for retention of lecturers in South-Western Nigerian universities (Ologunde, Asaolu and Elumilade, 2007). Furthermore, both economic and non-economic variables were found to be important in retaining the academics as there was no significant difference found between the two. This shows the importance of both factors in maintaining a high performance work force. The research is, however, generalizable to only the public universities in the domain of south-western Nigeria. Generalization of the result cannot be extended to the private universities in this geopolitical zone, all the universities in the entire southern region nor all the university sectors in Nigeria. But the significance of the study in highlighting issues that require further investigation should be recognized, especially, with regards to the effectiveness of economic and non-economic rewards in motivating the academics. The result seems to be similar to the work of Ajila and Abiola (2004) with Central Bank of Nigeria workers. They found extrinsic reward to be more influential in motivating the workers to higher performance.

Roe et al (2000) investigated the antecedents and consequences of job involvement and organizational commitment of workers in Bulgaria, Hungary, and the Netherlands. They found some clear differences between the three countries from their overall result. The differences in the results were interpreted in terms of cultural and economic differences. Finally, they hypothesized that “the environment people are in produces differences in what motivates them, while the consequences of motivation tend to be universal” (p.679). The outcome variables used in the study include performance, job satisfaction, tendency to leave (turnover intent), and work stress. Part of their findings from the Netherlands was that, clearly, people getting committed to their organization implies having opportunity to develop oneself and make a career, and having good relationship with co-workers and the boss. Further, though other aspect of work may bring about satisfaction, it does not translate to making the person more committed. Their results from the three countries investigated in the research made them support the view that local differences be taken into consideration while developing theories, and that managerial intervention from the West should not be considered universally valid.



### 3.6 Conceptualization and Definition of Concepts

According to Bryman (2012, p.163) “concepts are the building blocks of theory and represent the points around which social research is conducted”. Citing the description of concept by Deleuze and Guattari (1991), Yabareen (2009) reviewed that: a) every concept has some components which define it; b) these components, or what defines the consistency of the concept; its endo-consistency; are distinct, heterogeneous and, yet, not separable; c) it is a multiplicity, though not every multiplicity is conceptual; and d) no concept has only one component. For a concept to be used quantitatively, it needs to be measured or operationalized with an indicator or indicators standing for the concept (Bryman, 2012). The above explanations were brought to bear in the present research. These were coupled with the advice of authors such as Anikweze (2012) for the use of more than one operational definition for a construct, since one operational definition is likely to be incomplete. The concepts used in the quantitative section of the study had multiple indicators defining them. This would also be helpful in the categorization of themes identified in the qualitative section of the study.

A conceptual framework is defined by Yabareen (2009, p.51) as: a network, or “a plane,” of “interlinked concepts that together provide a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon or phenomena”. It explains graphically or in narrative form, “the main things to be studied – the key factors, constructs or variables – and the presumed relationships among them” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, 18). In a conceptual framework, the concepts support one another (Yabareen, 2009). That means the conceptual framework is like a plan, specifying how and/or what to study in the research, setting boundaries in the research process. Some of the relationship in the conceptual framework can be logical, or show empirical findings (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Unlike in quantitative research, qualitative research seeks to build theory, with the conceptual framework now being emergent (Vaughan, 2008). Moreover, some qualitative researchers believe the social processes are too complex to be approached with prestructured designs or “explicit conceptual frames or standard instruments”; “instruments if any, should be derived from the properties of the setting and its actors’ views of them” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.17). However, Miles and Huberman (1994) explain that while following the part of a loose design makes sense in some situation where experienced researcher has plenty of time, for an inexperienced researcher using loose design in some research such as where there is better understanding of the phenomenon may be a waste of time. They believe that tighter designs provide more clarity in this situation. Further, researchers already have

some idea about part of the phenomenon not well understood or that will feature in the research, which is good even if the idea changes over time. That is, there is usually a rudimentary conceptual framework from the outset. In addition, qualitative researchers in the field are there to describe and analyse patterns of relationship, requiring a set of analytic categories.

Along these lines, Maxwell (2004, p.43) pointed out that “in qualitative research, both existing theory and grounded theory are legitimate and valuable”. He emphasized that, however tentative or incomplete the conceptual framework may be, it is considered a theory. Perhaps, that is why some authors such as Sekaran and Bougie (2013, p.68) used the term “theoretical framework”. According to their definition,

*“a theoretical framework represents your beliefs on **how** certain phenomena (or variables or concepts) are related to each other (model) and an explanation of **why** you believe that these variables are associated with each other (theory). Both the model and the theory flow logically from the documentation of previous research in the problem area”* (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013, p.68).

The sources of the concepts, factors or variables used in this current study seem to be the same as those presented by Maxwell (2004) and Sekaran and Bougie (2013). They identified four main sources through which a researcher can obtain the concepts/variables/factors for construction of the conceptual/theoretical framework. These include: experiential knowledge, existing theory and research/literature review, pilot and exploratory research, and thought experiment/intuition. Three basic features to be incorporated in the process of building a theoretical framework were identified by Sekaran and Bougie (2013, p.78). These include:

- a) The variables considered relevant to the study should be clearly defined.
- b) A conceptual model that describes the relationships between the variables in the model should be given.
- c) There should be a clear explanation of why we expect these relationships to exist.

The current research is not designed to test any hypothesis. Rather, the concepts and arrows depicting relationship in the rudimentary conceptual framework presented in figure 3.1 are purely logical or a matter of common sense, part of which originated from literature/theoretical reviews. That is, the literature review has revealed the relationship between most of the concepts. The preliminary discussion/interview and literature review provided most of the factors and indicators used in developing the conceptual framework (CF). The initial preliminary interview presented in section 4.6.4 was a very valuable

source of ideas for what are being studied or incorporated in the CF. It provided indicators used in the definition of some of the concepts in the study. For instance, it helped in identifying the aspects of institutional goals relevant to the work of academics which are used as indicators for measuring performance of the universities. Literature review provided some theoretical explanation of some relationship between the concepts. This knowledge and experience were utilized in linking the concepts and helped in providing sets of explanation that might be useful in making sense of the data obtained from the research. Further, the reviews specific to Nigerian universities helped in generating the research question. The framing of the question suggests that multiple methods would be necessary in trying to gain more insight into the problem investigated. The conceptual framework in this research is thus, used to map out or plan the territory to be investigated and interpret findings. In the interpretation process, some contextual issues specific to the individual universities or their sectors may be brought in. The explanation regarding the indicators of the concepts used are further provided below.

The Nigerian education system in general and the university system in particular over the years have been described as being in crisis. Many writers on the crisis (e.g. Dabalén, Oni and Adekola, 2000; Moja, 2000; Saint et al, 2003; Okebukola, 2006, 2010) have looked at the country's higher education problem from various angles and believe that its standard has fallen as a result of this crisis. This research looked at the working conditions of academic staff in six Nigerian universities, their organizational commitment and performances of the universities, taking into consideration their sectorial differences. This section describes the manner in which some concepts are used and defined or measured in the study.

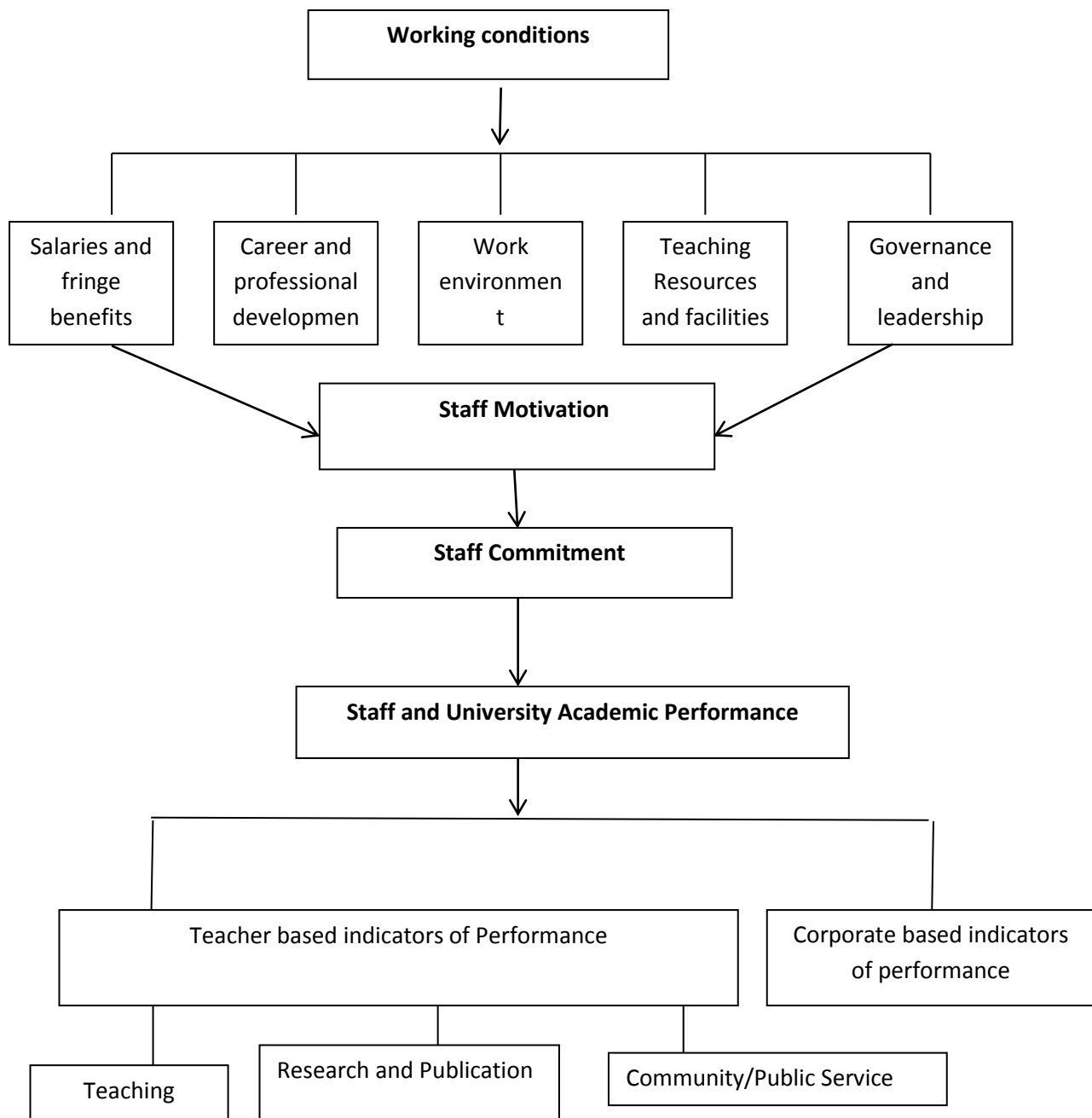
The diagrammatic view of the conceptual framework of the study is shown in figure 3.1. However, the following key concepts in the research are further defined below:

### **3.6.1 University**

A university is a higher degree awarding institution on different fields of study. In the study, the researcher looked at six universities in Nigeria selected based on three university sectors: federal university, in which proprietorship is the federal government and therefore, a public financing institution; state university, which is also public financing but at the state level, therefore, proprietorship is the state government and; private university, in which proprietorship is private individuals, churches, non-

governmental organizations and any other identity that is not governmental and therefore, self-financing.

**Figure 3.1: Conceptual Framework of the Study**



### 3.6.2 Academic staff/Lecturers

Academic staff in this study refers to all employees of the university that are engaged primarily in teaching and evaluation of students, conduction and publication of research findings, and using their expertise to enhance the wellbeing of members of the community or society by way of community services/responsive social engagement, both at the

national and international level. This group includes lecturers and professors at all grades. The research also recognizes that there are some academic staff that have additional administrative functions like Deans and Heads of Departments. They are treated in the study as both academic staff and administrators. The academic staff are the main research subjects of the study. The study believes that they are the most relevant in matters concerning achievement of university goals and therefore, academic performance of the universities. This is in view of the fact that performance is goal-related and the functions of academic staff are basically academic in nature. In some places the academic staff may also be referred to as lecturers or just academics.

### **3.6.3 Working Conditions**

Working conditions in the research refers to the total experiences or affairs and perception of the worker about his/her job, some of which may or may not come under the contractual terms, and may or may not be defined, tangible or intangible. The conditions include environmental, financial and non-financial issues believed to have impacted in no small measure on the delivery of university education in Nigeria. This includes some issues that have been identified in literature and from the initial preliminary interviews with a few academic staff from two public universities. Some of them have been sources of major industrial dispute between unions and university administration. Therefore, aspects of conditions of work studied are categorized into salary and fringe benefits, career and professional development, work environment, teaching resources and facilities and, governance and leadership. Discussion pertaining to these factors has already been considered under literature review.

- (i) **Salary and fringe benefits:** Salary and fringe benefits in the public service in Nigeria including the public sector universities are not negotiated by individual staff but depends on grade level as stipulated in the public service rules and regulations. As such, individuals on the same level receive almost equal pay depending on one's step on the level. Salary is a very important factor to consider in studying working conditions in the universities in Nigeria. It is one major factor that has resulted in several strike actions by the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) and massive loss of intellectual capital in the universities through the process known as brain drain. It is a fixed amount paid monthly to the academic staff for work done. Fringe benefits refer to that compensation made to staff beyond normal monthly salary. In this study it includes welfare packages such as loan (e.g car loan, housing loan and any

other loan) granted staff to take care of some personal needs; pension scheme meant to provide financial support for staff after retiring from services of the universities; provisions for health care; research grant; among others.

- (ii) **Career and professional development:** Career development in the study refers to all efforts and activities targeted towards helping the academic staff manage and advance in his or her life and work within his institution and other organizations he might find himself, while professional development refers to activities designed to assist academic staff develop skills and knowledge that will help them excel in their professional role as teachers, hence, enhancing teaching and learning. These are measured through opportunities provided by the job for training, education and development, promotion, and job security. These can come in form of sponsorship to conferences, workshops, seminars, publications, sabbatical. Quality of staff is believed to have great influence on students' achievement which affects performance of the universities. Also, it is assumed that the adequacy of the opportunities available in these developmental areas would be important in decisions of academics with regard to their work.
- (iii) **Work environment:** Work environment is defined in this research as the physical, social and psychological atmosphere or factors surrounding academic staff work in the universities studied. Some of these factors result to stress, frustration, and low morale on the job which are likely to affect academic staff concentration and performance and equally, the performance of the universities as a whole. The work environment factor is defined in terms of workload, co-worker relationship, availability of power and transportation system, recreational facilities and office space and furnishing.
- (iv) **Teaching resources and facilities:** For the purpose of this research, teaching resources and facilities would mean human and physical materials, tools, buildings, gadgets, and so on, that support teachers and students in the teaching-learning process. These are considered important in the attainment of goals of education, including the university education. These are defined in the study by the adequacy of mentorship, information and communication technology (ICT), library, classrooms, and modern instructional tools. Inadequacies of these teaching-learning materials are believed to affect the ability of teachers to teach, teacher morale, and also their health and safety.

Through mentoring, junior academics are guided towards developing their full potential as the process helps in enhancing their teaching and research skills.

- (v) **Governance and leadership:** Over the years, the crises in the Nigerian university system had been to a large extent, attributed to ineffective governance, and any reform in the university system without effective management will have little impact (Okebukola, 2005). Governance in this study is taken to be totality of all activities in the university that has to do with administration and management of human and other resources of the institution, while leadership is regarded as process of influence, the art of motivating people towards a new direction in order to achieve a goal. The two groups have a lot of impact on the performance of the institution through their activities which can either motivate or demotivate the employees. Their effectiveness in the institutions is believed to be, to a large extent, dependent on how much they are able to engage in participatory decision-making, communicate effectively to larger members of the institution important decisions affecting their job, provide opportunity for result-oriented academic staff union, encourage participatory and transparent leadership selection, make functioning of basic organs effective, and provide appropriate feedback to academic staff on their performances. Therefore, in most cases in this study, they are not distinguished but used interchangeably, recognizing the fact that both involve exercise of power.

#### **3.6.4 University Performance**

MacPherson and Pabari (2004) defined performance in terms of effectiveness, i.e. how an organization has been able to achieve its mission, purpose or goals; efficiency in harnessing its resources; ongoing relevance - relating to how much the organization responds to changes in its environment in response to the changing needs of its stakeholders; and financial viability to remain viable over time. In their view, an organization is effective if it has successfully met its purpose. Therefore, in this research, university performance refers to the extent the universities investigated have been able to achieve the goals or objectives for which they were established.

#### **3.6.5 University Goals**

University goals simply defined in this research refers to the expectation of stakeholders from the activities of the universities. These goals or expectations have been variously classified by different authors but generally summed up to include teaching, research, and public/community services, each made up of different components or indicators (e.g. Uvah, 2003; NPE, 2004; Banjo, 2006; Albert, 2010; Ibidapo-Obe, 2010; Obanya, 2010).

This study, however, concentrated on those goals which are academic in nature and considered to be more directly related to academic staff job. In assessing the performances of the universities in the goal areas, performance indicators as used by the nation's university regulatory agency, the NUC are used.

### **3.6.6 Performance Indicators (PIs)**

Performance indicators are defined by Uvah (2003, p.2) as “information, usually numerical, about activities of a higher institution, which helps the management of the institution to evaluate activities, make judgments and reach decisions”. Five reasons advanced by Spee and Bormans (1992 cited in Uvah, 2003) that made the use performance indicators “imperative” in higher institutions include among others, evaluation. This refers to the process by which the extent of institutional goal attainment is determined. One of the characteristics of performance indicators is relevance, that is, “they should relate to the objectives of the organization” (Uvah, 2003, p.5) making it important that objectives of the organization are well understood, implying that PIs should be “problem-oriented and policy-relevant”. In evaluating the performance of the universities in this study using PIs, the input-process-output model indicators used by NUC is adopted, which takes into account the input, process, and output variables in assessing university performance. Okebukola (2006) described the inputs as those elements needed as raw materials for delivering the quality of output envisaged. The assumption is that these input elements can impact on students' academic achievement (Adeyemi and Osunde, 2005). There are many of these input indicators but the input elements considered in this study are students and teaching manpower with particular attention to the mix of academic staff at different cadre and the number at professorial level.

The processing phase combines the resources and factors in the university system in order to meet each university's objective of producing good quality outputs in terms of a) graduates, b) research and, c) other services (Uvah, 2003; Okebukola, 2006). Though there are many of these indicators such as teaching and learning process, research activity, and so on, the process indicators of interest in this study include the average staff/student ratio for each university. Staff development efforts of the universities are also to be included here since they somehow relate to learning process that will enhance skill for quality teaching and research, and to some extent, community services.

Output indicators refer to the output produced by the universities (Uvah, 2003). In this research, the interest will be on quantity of research publications, graduate output, and



quality of graduates in terms of proportion of students that completed with high class honours. Also of interest is how much the “the knowledge and skills” in the universities have been used to affect the local or international community (Okebukola, 2006) by way of community services.

Therefore, in this research, information on performances of each university is sought under four broad groupings with special regard to the objectives of Nigerian universities:

- a) Teaching accomplishments; b) research and publications; c) community and public services and; d) corporate achievements.

Graduate output is an indication of manpower production for the needs of the multifarious sectors of the country and one of the measures of the internal efficiency of the universities. Quality is a subjective concept which is difficult to determine precisely. For this research, attempt is made to determine the quantity and quality of graduates in each university by using NUC minimum academic standard indicators for students’ achievement. These quality indicators include factors such as teaching manpower measured in terms of a) number of staff at professorial level and their ratio to other academic staff in the university, because, the professorial cadre indicates successful academic quality, b) number of graduates and number with high grade honours in this research includes those with 1<sup>st</sup> class honour. The indicator for research and publication is measured in terms of the number of academics that have been able to publish research findings for the period reviewed. It shows how the universities have contributed to generation of knowledge or creation of wealth for the society, and how much the university has supported efforts of the academics in this regard.

### **3.6.7 Organizational Commitment**

Organizational Commitment as defined by Greenberg and Baron (2003, p.161) is “the extent to which an individual identifies and is involved with his or her organization and/or is unwilling to leave it”. Some other scholars like Allen and Meyer (1990) have observed that employees who are strongly committed are least likely to leave their organization. Literature shows that there are different kinds of organizational commitment. The study is only interested in knowing what will make Nigerian academics more inclined to stay in their universities.

## **Summary of chapter**

University education in Nigeria as it is all over the world is vital for the development of the individual and society as a whole. The general goals of university education in Nigeria as it is universally are to transmit, create and apply knowledge. The extent the universities are able to achieve these goals determines their performance. In order to achieve some of their goals, the universities need, among others, well-motivated and committed academic staff. That means, universities should provide adequate working conditions and environment conducive for teaching, learning and research. The chapter reviewed literatures on working conditions and its facets. The literatures point to the fact that there are several factors in the workplace that affect motivation of employees which have implication for organizational commitment and performance (e.g Ostroff, 1992; Allen and Meyer, 1990; MacPherson and Pabari, 2004). That is, employee working conditions influence commitment and performance as a result of its influence or link with motivation. As such, it described working conditions, motivation and satisfaction and the link between them. The review also tends to suggest that the motivating effect of working conditions is varied just as the conditions are varied (e.g. Hofstede, 2003; Ifinedo, 2004; Ajila and Abiola, 2004; Latham and Pinder, 2005; Ladd, 2009). It depends on the peculiarity of the organization concerned, its individuals and cultural values of the organizational domain and therefore, likely to imply different managerial approaches (Weir, 2005). However, Roe et al (2000) noted that in some cases its consequences may be universal. It was also pointed out that poor working conditions negatively affect employee satisfaction, their attachment to their organization, all of which negatively impact on performance of the employee and that of the organization. Also of note is the fact that what people value from work which affect their behaviour towards their job and the organization differ across countries. Hence, it is important for organizations to find out what their employees want in order to keep them satisfied, make them stay and help the organizations achieve their goals. Different opinions and research findings about different aspects of working conditions and their values in the workplace with respect to commitment and performance were discussed, drawing attention to the experiences of Nigerian academics where possible (e.g. Porter et al, 1974; Arthur, 1994; Becker et al, 1996; Johnsrud and Heck, 1998; Roe et al, 2000; Ukaegbu, 2000; Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe, 2004; Adekola, 2012) The chapter observed that both financial and non-financial incentives are important in motivating Nigerian workers including academics, to stay and to perform for their organizations (e.g. Ukaegbu, 2000; Ajila and Abiola, 2004; Ifinedo, 2004; Dada, 2006; Yaqub, 2007). Finally, the chapter presented the definitions and measures of key concepts

investigated in the study, highlighting some of their indicators. The next chapter discusses the methodology of the study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

The preceding chapter discussed the theoretical perspective of the research in which related works have been reviewed. This chapter discusses the philosophical underpinnings associated with research (or development of knowledge) and also, the choice of methods employed in trying to answer the research questions. The chapter explains the stages and reasons for actions taken by the researcher in order to get data needed for conclusion of the inquiry.

In an attempt to decide on the appropriate approach to the research, it became necessary to go through literatures on methodology in order to understand the approaches recommended by scholars in methodology for different types of issues/investigation. Considering the nature of the topic under consideration, it became apparent that survey design would be ideal for the study. Having decided on the methodology, there was need to get more ideas about the topic from experts in Nigerian universities for the purpose of enhancing the approach to the investigation. Further, getting more information from other key staff such as union members and some Heads of Department on the subject matter before developing the main data collection instrument, the questionnaire, was considered necessary. The aim was to enrich the available information based on free expression of individuals about the working conditions of staff in the universities, and also validate what is in literature about the topic. This led to the researcher conducting a preliminary qualitative interview in two Nigerian universities. Further, to fully understand the context of the entire problem in the university system, the researcher reviewed some documents that highlighted the origin and the nature of the problems in the universities. These documentaries and other official materials and books by renowned Nigeria scholars on history of Nigeria university education provided additional evident to the motivation problems of academic staff in the university system. Consequently, the data collection method is divided into three parts: i) initial preliminary/pilot qualitative interview presented in chapter four, section 4.6.4 to help form part of the conceptual framework, ii) the historical documentary evidence as to the perceived obstacles to organizational commitment and good university performance presented in chapter two, and iii) self-rating questionnaire containing both structured and unstructured questions for collection of information from the academics about their feelings with different aspects of their working

conditions (structured) and questions to help find out factors that would make them more inclined to stay. A checklist of questions for gathering objective data on performances of the universities in teaching and research areas was used to collect information on performance from administrative divisions of the universities. Since the data gathering process involves both quantitative and qualitative aspects, it is regarded as using mixed method.

The research question is: “What and how did the perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and university performance in Nigeria evolve, and what can be done to improve it?”

The research has the following objectives:

- i. Identify the perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and institutional performance in Nigerian universities.
- ii. Analyse how the perceived obstacles to commitment and university performance evolved.
- iii. Investigate the academic staff perception of their current working conditions.
- iv. Investigate work factors that are important for academic staff to remain in their universities.
- v. Investigate the level of performance of the universities under the current working conditions.

The sections that follow describe methodology (section 4.2), philosophical perspectives and research and identifying the philosophical position of the research (4.3), the research design is also explained pointing out the research strategy (4.4). The research population and sampling is described in section 4.5, while data collection instrument, report of the preliminary interviews and issues about validity and reliability are discussed in section 4.6.

#### **4.2 Methodology (strategy; approach; tradition):**

Babbie (2004, p.6) saw methodology as a subfield of epistemology (what should be acceptable knowledge in a field of study) which could be seen as “the science of finding out”. That is, according to Guba (1990), methodology has to do with how an inquirer should “go about finding out knowledge” (p.18). It is therefore, believed that methodology

has a more philosophical meaning, referring to the approach and paradigm justifying the research (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 2006). Paradigm is regarded as belief system or dictates guiding conduct of a research which influences what should be studied, how research should be done, including the way result should be interpreted (Kuhn, 1970, cited in Bryman and Bell, 2007), or simply the way of examining social phenomena helping understandings of the phenomena and enabling explanation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). The implication of the definition of methodology by Blaxter and colleagues as they distinguish between method and methodology is that, the same data collection technique like interview conducted under different paradigms will have different underlying purpose and with the production of broadly different data. It is believed that understanding the philosophical assumptions in which a research is based helps in explaining the rationale behind the choice of a research method.

### **4.3 Philosophical perspectives and research**

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009, p.107) research philosophy has to do with “the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge”. The two major ways of understanding knowledge listed by the authors are ontology and epistemology. Ontology deals with the researcher’s assumptions about the world, that is, the nature of reality (Guba, 1990; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009); “how things really are” and “how things really work” (Guba, 1990, p.19). The two main ontological positions in relation to research are objectivism and subjectivism. Objectivism has to do with the position that “social entities exist in reality external to social actors concerned with their existence” (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, p.110). On the other hand, subjectivism has the position that “social phenomena are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of those social actors concerned with their existence” (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, p.110). That is, reality is socially constructed, implying the need for the researcher to carefully study or “look beyond the details of the situation to understand the reality or perhaps a reality working behind them” (Remenyi, et al, 1998, p.35).

Epistemology concerns what is or should constitute acceptable knowledge in a discipline or field of study (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). To Bryman and Bell (2007), what is central in epistemology is whether the social world should be studied according to the same principles and procedures as the natural sciences.

Two main epistemological philosophies are positivism and interpretivism. Ozanne and Hudson (1989) summarise the central goal of positivists to be explanation and prediction.

Generally, they seek nomothetic knowledge, assume real causes exist. Nomothetic knowledge implies tendency to generalize (Robinson, 2011) and is associated with quantitative research. On the other hand, interpretivists' central goal is understanding, and this is associated with qualitative research. They believe that reality is socially constructed, as such, many realities exist. This kind of knowledge is regarded as idiographic knowledge (Robinson, 2011).

#### **4.3.1 Pragmatism**

The pragmatic philosophy arose out of actions, situations, and consequences as opposed to postpositivist philosophy that resulted out of antecedent conditions (Creswell, 2009). The emergence of pragmatic paradigm as a set of beliefs is due to the “paradigm wars” (over the “compatibility” and “incompatibility” debate of the postpositivist and interpretivist paradigms) and “the emergence of mixed methods and mixed models approaches” (Armitage and Keeble-Allen, 2007). Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) observed that philosophically, pragmatists consider truth to be what works. The emphasis here is the research problem. The Catholic Encyclopedia, New Advent reinforces this assertion in its own description of pragmatism as signifying “the insistence on usefulness or practical consequences as a test of truth”. Pragmatists believe that it is possible for a researcher to conduct an inquiry within the philosophical positions of both the positivists and interpretivists. Their position is that, the research question is the most important determinant of the philosophical position to adopt in a research, in that one position may be more appropriate than the other in answering a particular question (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Also, where the research question does not suggest any particular philosophical position, it is possible for a researcher to work within different positions in a single study. This was interpreted by Howe (1998 cited in, Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998) to mean that both quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible and can therefore, be used by a researcher in a research. Thus, the pragmatic paradigm allows for the use of mixed methods in social and behavioural research (Armitage and Keeble-Allen, 2007). Again, Bryman and Bell (2007) noted that some scholars have indicated that, the argument that research methods carry fixed epistemological and ontological implication has been difficult to sustain. Furthermore, the assumption that quantitative and qualitative researches are separate paradigms that are incompatible cannot be demonstrated in the case of business research. They believe that it is not clear that quantitative and qualitative researches are paradigms, and that there is an overlap and commonalities between them.

There has been increased attention to the use of mixed methods in research designs (Yin, 2009). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p.17) defined mixed methods research as “a class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study”. In the view of Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, the purpose of mixed method research is to draw from the strength and minimize the weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research in a single research study. They advocate pragmatism as the philosophical partner for mixed method which helps shed light on how “research approaches should be mixed in ways that offer the best opportunities for answering important research questions” (p.16). According to Brannen (2005, p.4), the mixing may be those of qualitative and quantitative methods, a mix of quantitative methods or a mix of qualitative methods. Also, as a research strategy, it may or may not represent a particular research design, i.e. it could be a strategy in its own right or “may be subsumed within another research strategy”.

#### **4.3.2 Philosophical Position of the Research**

Drawing from the ontological and epistemological discussions above, this study is situated within pragmatic philosophy. The reason is that, the study is designed to collect both quantitative data (emphasizing objective approach to truth), as well as qualitative data (seeking subjective meaning). Understanding that individuals are diverse in their understanding and opinion of the world around them, and that the university as an organization is made up of academic staff whose belief and values differ, using different methods of getting information to capture their diverse opinions would bring clarity to the understanding or knowledge of the subject of study. Consequently, qualitative interview aspect of the research during data collection was used to gain first hand informed insight into the subject matter, validate some issues raised in the literature review and provide information used in part of the full-scale data collection in the course of the research.

Furthermore, the secondary documentary data used to analyse the historical evolution of the problems in the universities provides another source of qualitative evidence. This is used to identify/analyse historically, the evolution of some identified factors perceived to be affecting commitment of academics and performance of universities in Nigeria. From the philosophical discussion earlier, it has been established that it is possible to combine both quantitative and qualitative strands within a single study. Remenyi et al (1998) have even opined that positivism and phenomenology – the study of experience from individual perspective - should encourage the researcher to draw from the benefits of both views



where appropriate, within a single research project. This would enable triangulation of findings that enhances validation of the results. The term triangulation is defined by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009, p.146) as “the use of different data collection techniques within one study in order to ensure that the data are telling you what you think they are telling you”. Denzin (1970, 1978) is said to have identified four types of triangulation to include: triangulation of methods; triangulation of data; triangulation of investigators; and triangulation of theories (e.g. Jick, 1979; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Bryman, n.d; University of Strathclyde, n.d).

However, the mixing of quantitative and qualitative information in the current study was not for the purpose of triangulation/corroboratorion of findings. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2004b cited in Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2004, p.19) pointed out that “In many cases the goal of mixing is not to search for corroboration but rather to expand one’s understanding”. The main idea of mixing in the present study is to have a more comprehensive understanding and account of what is being studied. Each data collection technique helped in getting information for different aspects of the research question in order to have a composite assessment of the problem. The preliminary interviews helped understanding of the issues in the universities that would aid the design of the full-scale investigation. The document review is used to answer the question related to the historical background or the evolution of the perceived problems investigated. Denscombe (2010) has identified that documents can be used as a survey instrument. Mitra and Chaudhuri (2000) used survey approach for their investigation on information retrieval from documents. The quantitative sections of the questionnaire provided additional information in connection with the academics feelings about different aspects of their job while the qualitative section provided information required on commitment. Another quantitative instrument was used to gather data to answer the question related to university performance.

To achieve this purpose, the researcher first embarked on a preliminary study to uncover the dimensions of working conditions that are of concern to academic staff in Nigeria through qualitative interviews of academics. In doing this, the researcher was trying to identify and understand their feelings and their experiences in the workplace and these feelings can only be understood through interaction with the subjects of interest. Having identified these factors by establishing categories, questionnaire was developed to capture more information from larger population of academics on various relevant issues. The questionnaire was used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. A checklist of

closed questions is used to collect numeric data on different university performance areas. Consequently, the interpretation of findings is an integration of quantitative and qualitative perspectives arising from the findings.

In adopting the above procedure, the study would benefit from plurality of approaches to seeking knowledge; ontologically, that reality is external and multiple, and that research question is the determinant of the ontology and epistemology to adopt, because one may be more appropriate than the other in answering a specific research question. Therefore, the philosophical position taken in this research is that:

- Positivist researchers seek general knowledge/law that is applicable to many different individuals, places, or times, hence, the adherence to the use of scientific principle in conduct of research in order to find relationship for generalization. That is, they believe that reality or truth can be discovered through a single perspective. On the contrary, interpretivist researchers believe in understanding patterns/meaning in behaviour, in that the world is complex and dynamic, making it difficult for causal relationship to be identified. That is, there are multiple realities. However, in the words of Ozanne and Hudson (1989), “even our best theories and methods are inadequate”, just as Badley (2011) noted that, there is no research paradigm that has monopoly on quality. Therefore, an integration of both objective and subjective components within a study helps in creating greater variety and enrichment of findings.

#### **4.4 Research Design**

Research design provides a clear focus to the direction of the research. It charts the course of the procedure to be followed in arriving at “objective and defensible solution or conclusion”; hence, dealing with issues that determine the activities comprising the research process (Anikweze, 2012, p.1). This research is designed to be a cross-sectional study. As such, it is studying phenomena at a particular point in time. These phenomena are the academic staff working conditions, organizational commitment and university performance in Nigeria. Time constraint is a justification for a researcher to adopt cross-sectional design (Wilson, 2010). As an academic research, with predetermined expected time of completion, it would be unwise to ignore the fact that the amount of time available

for the project is limited. Therefore, making the design cross-sectional is considered a safer option than longitudinal design that requires longer time for completion.

#### **4.4.1 Research Strategy**

The design of the research started with a preliminary visit to two public sector universities in Nigeria where the researcher held some discussion/interview with a few staff. It focused on some key academic staff and research experts in one federal and one state university. The idea was to gain more understanding about the topic, the main issues bothering the academic staff in their work, what objectives the academic staff and the universities as a whole are expected to achieve for the benefit of the citizenry in terms of university goals and, how to approach the investigation. Aside the fact that the interviews generated issues for further investigation through quantitative means, it acted as a means of validating what is in literature about the topic. Information from the discussions/interviews coupled with literature review and that from documentary analysis reviewed in chapter two were used to develop the quantitative section of the main data gathering instrument, the questionnaire, which comprised quantitative and qualitative sections. The items in the quantitative section of the questionnaire are derived from the following categories of factor: (i) salary and fringe benefits, (ii) career and professional development, (iii) teaching resources and facilities, (iv) work environment, and (v) governance and leadership. This section helped in determining how the universities are able to satisfy their staff. The qualitative section deals with issues that have to do with academics needs for their personal growth and to remain in their universities. Information on university performance was gathered with a checklist of questions populated by the administrative divisions of the various universities.

Through the use of the questionnaire with touch of quantitative and qualitative elements, more enriched results are achieved as the researcher is able to obtain reasonable data to make informed judgment.

##### **(i) Survey Strategy**

Generally, a survey has to do with gathering of information from a large group of people or population (Malhotra and Grover, 1998). The information collected about the group or population could be on its characteristics, actions, or opinions. When these types of information about a group (i.e. what they do, what they think, who they are) are required, survey can be most useful (Denscombe, 2010). The researcher has already provided abundant related literature on issues about the conditions under which the academic staff in Nigeria universities work, organizational commitment and other matters related to

university performance. Also, the history of university education in Nigeria had been reviewed pointing out the genesis of the crises in the university system. This study basically tries to obtain opinions of academic staff in selected Nigeria's federal, state and private universities about the working conditions in their universities, find out, through their own free expression or perspectives, what will make them more inclined to remain in their universities and also, investigate the extent of performance of the universities in the different university goal areas under the prevailing working conditions. This will provide information on motivational areas of importance in management of university education in Nigeria that may help in checking the problem of commitment and performance in the universities.

The survey strategy is very much in use in business research as it allows collection of both quantitative and qualitative information from many types of research questions; and is used in exploratory, descriptive, and the causal research (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). The authors identified some of its instruments to be questionnaire, interviews and structured observation. Three crucial characteristics of a survey identified by Denscombe (2010) further provided justification for the use of survey in this research, and also, the use of questionnaire and interviews (as done at the preliminary stage) as data collection methods in the design. These include: wide and inclusive coverage; at a specific point in time; and empirical research. Recognizing the approach as a research strategy, and not a method, he emphasized that "although there are certain methods which are popularly associated with the use of surveys there are actually a variety of methods" (p.12) and may include questionnaires, interviews, document and observation. This research met the identified characteristics by its design to include collection of data from large samples of the population of academic staff in Nigerian universities at a particular point in time. These data are collected simultaneously because the instruments for data collection, the questionnaire for working conditions were served participants for which an individual participant provided answers to all the items at, more or less, the same time. The research is empirical, in that the researcher tried to gain knowledge of what is going on in the universities through personal experience and observation of phenomena, generating analyzable data. Going further on this, de Vaus (2001) points out that, often, cross-sectional surveys are equated with questionnaires. However, he is of the view that, it is inappropriate to equate any particular research design with a particular data collection method. Survey design is considered valuable in this research because it has been proven to be a good tool for assessing opinions and trends. Litwin (1995) also notes that good surveys are sources of critical information and an avenue for better understanding of topic

of interest. The result from the sample studied can be used by the researcher to generalize or make claim about the entire population (Creswell, 2009).

The need to employ a survey in this study was further revealed by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009, p.144) who identified it as a popular and common strategy in business and management research as it “allow the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way”. It is therefore, useful in providing insight into the characteristics of a large population. The facts pointed out by the authors are relevant to this current research. It would have been difficult for the researcher to cover over 104 universities in the country of study considering the limited resources and time available for the research. As an academic project and hence, with expected date of completion, time is a concern to the researcher. Moreover, the universities in the country of study, Nigeria, are located wide apart in different geopolitical regions and zones of the country, requiring several hours, sometimes almost a whole day – depending on the university - to move from one to another. Survey and questionnaires have been used in some studies that compared research output in federal universities in Nigeria (Okafor, 2011), analysis of labour turnover in Nigerian universities (Ologunde, Asaolu and Elumilade, n.d), retaining staff in African universities (Tettey, 2006) and other related studies on motivation of Nigerian teachers. Qualitative questionnaires have also been used in an exploratory research by Wang, Hsieh and Huan (2000) to explore critical service features in group package tour. Another advantage of survey research as identified by Denscombe (2010) is its ability to generate both quantitative and qualitative data in a study which is the case in this present study.

Survey research design like any other research design has been criticized in different ways. However, most of the criticisms have to do with weak application of the design, (for example, in terms of method of data collection), and not the design itself. Like de Vaus (2001) pointed out, designs are often poorly evaluated because of inability of people to distinguish between research design and method. One of the limitations identified with survey research include the tendency to emphasize collection of empirical data without consideration to relevance of the data to theory or solving the problem the research was designed for. Further, surveys are criticized for lack of depth on investigation of issues especially when large scale surveys using quantitative data are involved, but this may not be true for a small-scale qualitative survey (Denscombe, 2010). Though the researcher does not claim complete comprehensiveness, the above criticisms were to some extent reduced by the processes followed in the investigation. The preliminary qualitative

interview helped in uncovering areas of interest to the academic staff and joined together with some evidences in literature, the instrument developed appeared to be relatively comprehensive. Again, the instrument developed has both quantitative and structured questions, as well as qualitative sections with open questions that helped in identifying issues concerned with organizational commitment. Therefore, relatively large amount of qualitative data were gathered to make reasonable judgment based on personal evidence or perspectives of the participants. Low response rate is also associated with the survey, especially the large-scale survey. However, this is deemed an acceptable risk in this case.

## **4.5 Research Population and Sampling**

### **4.5.1 Research Population**

A population is described as “a well-defined group of people or objects that share common characteristics (Cox and West, 1986; cited in Lunsford and Lunsford, 1995). In research, it refers to all items in a group for which information is sought (Lunsford and Lunsford, 1995; Denscombe, 2010) or “the universe of elements from which sample elements are drawn, or the universe of elements to which we want to generalise” (Remenyi et al, 1998, p.i287). This is also referred to as target population (Bums and Grove, n.d). They also identified accessible population as the portion of the target population to which the researcher has reasonable access and from which the sample is drawn. The population in this study is the entire 104 universities existing in the Nigeria university system as at 2010 and their academic staff. Out of this, six universities are selected based on ownership and regional location and age.

### **4.5.2 Sampling**

The focus of this study was the universities in the education sector of Nigeria. As pointed out by Bryman and Bell (2007) and also Sekeran and Bougie (2013), the decision about how large the sample size should be is not straightforward, but a difficult one. A number of considerations are involved in reaching a decision on that. In this study, it was not possible to include the entire population of Nigeria universities and academic staff in this research because of their large number and the long distances between the universities in terms of geographic location. Again, the resources, both time and money, for all inclusive coverage were limited. Also, and very important, is that the nature of the research design suggest that a lot would be involved in terms of volume of data to collect and handle in the analysis stage. The nature of data collected, though mixed, is heavily qualitative. This is coupled with the understanding of the difficulties in obtaining objective quantitative data

which is part of the design, and moving round different parts of the country to retrieve the completed questionnaires which were manually completed. Consequently, a portion or sample of the total population was used for the investigation. Since it is difficult to completely remove bias and derive a sample that is representative of a population, steps need to be taken to reduce bias to the barest minimum (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Some of the ways advocated include the use of probability or random sampling method and adequate or comprehensive sampling frame. Bryman and Bell (2007) also acknowledged that a true random sample process may not be open to the researcher; the important thing is for him/her to be clear about and justify what he/she has done. According to Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2011, p.174), probability sampling, based on the concept of random sampling, involves a controlled process which allows each element of the population to be given a “known non-zero” chance of being selected. Stratified sampling, a type of probability sampling, segregates the population into “several mutually exclusive sub-populations or strata” (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2011, p.174). This constraining process that ensures the inclusion of the population elements from each segment or strata is called stratified random sampling. That means, in some situation, you may likely have a better representation of the population using stratified random sampling than when only random sampling is used. Such situation seems to be revealed by Bryman and Bell (2007) who suggested that stratified sampling approach be used only when “it is relatively easy to identify and allocate units to strata” (p.187). Hence, stratification ensures or increases the statistical efficiency of a sample (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2011).

The revelation above was carried on board in the sampling process in this research. Six universities out of the 104 recorded universities by 2010 were used for the investigation. Apart from cost and time considerations, and other issues listed earlier such as distant coverage between the universities, the use of this sample size made it easier for the researcher to have greater control over the subjects since only a portion of the population was involved. Sampling has the disadvantage of potential bias in selection of subjects. For the fact that no sample is an exact characteristic of the population; there is resultant sampling error that affects extent of interpretation of results and generalization of findings (Lunsford and Lunsford, 1995; Gillham, 2008). These limitations were minimized through the use of stratified random sampling procedures that enabled conclusions to be reached on the population studied. Since the research involves the use of subjects from the federal, state and private universities, it became necessary that academics from the three categories/sectors of universities in Nigeria, which can rightly be called strata, are adequately represented in the sample. Also, through stratification, it would be possible to

get reasonable data for analysis based on these categories individually. Again, since the universities in Nigeria are located at different regions of the country which, culturally, are diverse, it is likely that regional influence would affect the opinion of the respondents towards certain issues. Stratification across regional divides becomes necessary in order to ensure that views from respondents across the regions are adequately accommodated. Fowler (2002, p.11) believes that samples should not be evaluated based on the result, or characteristics but by a critical look on the selection procedure.

**(i) Sampling of universities**

In order to get a representative sample of the population, sampling procedure was followed. First, the selection of the universities was done by grouping the universities based on ownership, that is, if the proprietorship is the Federal or State government, or private individuals/organizations. The decision for this was based on the assumption that since ownership is different, there is likely to be significant differences in terms of fund available for running the affairs of the different universities. There is, also, likely to be differences in management orientations towards affairs that concern staff and consequently differences in perception of the academic staff in these universities about their work. Therefore, integration of the opinion of academics from all the groups is important. From each of these three groups, those that had been in existence for at least 10 years were identified for the selection process. Limiting the study to universities that have existed up to ten or more years is to ensure that they had accumulated reasonable quantity of records, history and experience that could be meaningful and comparable. With regard to this, 46 out of the 104 universities in the country that met the criteria were identified. Requests for access were sent to 10 federal, 12 states, and 10 private universities (i.e. 32) randomly selected from the 46 universities. Out of the 32, only 17, predominantly state universities, gave approval. These 17 approvals were sorted out according to university ownership. Only two approvals were received from the private university sector and were automatically included in the research. For federal universities, only one approval came from the Northern Region of the country and was selected. To complete the number of federal university to two, one more was selected from the south. Approvals for state universities were also sorted out according to north and south geographic location, and two of the state universities, one each from both geographic locations, were selected using random selection. Therefore, sampling of universities was also done in such a way to ensure regional balance of the two main geographic dimensions of Nigeria, the Northern



and Southern regions. Through the sampling process, six universities were selected, made up of two federal, two state, and two private universities.

## **(ii) Sampling of Subjects**

The subjects of the study for information gathering were the academic staff of the selected universities. The study focused on the academic staff because they are regarded as most relevant and directly involved in the teaching, research, community services, and other critical university academic objectives and goals. Therefore, their commitment is important in building a productive workforce. Moreover, goals of universities are basically academic in nature and would be better traced to the academic staff. This was also observed by Okebukola (2006) while discussing the ratio of teaching to non-teaching staff in Nigerian universities.

It was not possible to collect evidence from all the members of the population studied. Hence, subsets of the possible participants were selected through sampling from the six universities. In drawing the samples of the subjects used for the research, attention was focused on those faculties/departments that run programmes that seem to cut across the three university sectors. Sampling of subjects concentrated mainly in the main campuses of the universities that run multiple campuses except in one of the universities whereby due to the nature of the approval given, one of its faculties outside the main campus was included in the sampling. Except for one of the public universities, specifically, a state university, sampling of subjects did not include such faculties/departments like medicine, pharmacy, and engineering. This is because, apart from the fact that most of them like medicine are situated outside the main campuses, most private universities, according to literature review, do not engage in such capital intensive courses. Therefore, sampling tried as much as possible to focus mainly on those faculties that have programmes that, to some extent, cut across all the universities studied. Sampling of the subjects from each university in the selected faculties was done randomly. This was done in such a way to ensure that there are chances of equal representation as much as possible. The targeted sample size for each university was 50 putting the total sample size expected for each of the three university sector investigated at 100 and the total sample size at 300.

## **Universities studied**

The six universities studied in the full scale research include the University of Nigeria, Nsukka (UNN); Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria (ABU); Nasarawa State University,

Keffi (NSUK); Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki (EBSU); Benson Idahosa University, Benin (BIU); and Bowen University (of the Nigerian Baptist Convention), Iwo (BOU).

UNN – University of Nigeria, Nsukka (UNN) is a first generation university in Nigeria, established in 1960 (the year of Nigeria’s independence) as “the first indigenous autonomous university in Nigeria” by the then Government of Eastern Nigeria (UNN, n.d). It was taken over by the Federal Government of Nigeria in April 1973 (UNN, n.d), hence, becoming a Federal university. Its most prominent founding father, The Right Honourable Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe (aka The Great Zik of Africa), is cited to have provided one of the reasons for its establishment. This has to do with the observation in the report of the International Bank Mission on the Economic Development of Nigeria of 1954, which indicated Nigeria’s need for many more graduates than the limited number of admissions, as well as absence of essential faculties in the then only higher institution in the country, the University College, Ibadan (UCI), now known as University of Ibadan (UNN, n.d; Ifemeje, 1979b). The concern of the founding fathers was to have a university rooted in African life, culturally bound, thereby, maintaining the “classical concept of a university”; vocational in its objectives, and also relevant to the solution of the problems of Nigerians (Report of the Economic Rehabilitation, 1954, cited in UNN; Ifemeje, 1979). According to Ifemeje, the UNN established faculties that are needed by the nation which were never taught by University College, Ibadan, such as Law and Engineering.

In consideration of its legislative mandate, the university has as its philosophy: “To seek truth, teach truth, and to preserve truth”, and as its motto: “To restore the dignity of man”, which are embedded in its mission statement. The university started with 26 academic staff and programmes in arts, science and social sciences at undergraduate level. At present, it has six institutions affiliated to it and offers certificates in Sub-degree Diplomas, Bachelor’s Degrees, Postgraduate Diplomas, Masters Degrees, and Doctorate Degrees. The main campus is at Nsukka in Enugu State of South-Eastern Nigeria. The other three campuses are located at Enugu town, Ituku-Ozalla where its Teaching Hospital is located, and Aba, all in South-East Nigeria.

ABU – Ahmadu Bello University (ABU) is a first generation university established in 1962 as a regional university in the Northern Region of Nigeria (ABU, 2009) due to the recommendation of the Ashby Commission (Ifemeje, 1979). It is named after the then Premier of Northern Nigeria, late Sir Ahmadu Bello who was also the first Chancellor. It was taken over by the Federal Government in 1975 becoming a Federal institution. An extensive university with a land area of 7,000 hectares (ABU, 2009), six institutes, five

specialized centres, a teaching hospital, a veterinary teaching hospital and a Division of Agricultural Colleges. Currently, it has thirty tertiary institutions affiliated to it (ABU, 2009). It has academic staff strength of about 1,700 and awards certificates for sub-degrees, degrees and postgraduate programmes. Its enrolment of under-graduate students as at 2011 was put at 30,269. The university is located in Zaria, a heterogeneous city of Kaduna State in North-West Nigeria.

NSUK – A conventional and multi-campus state university established in 2002 by the Government of Nasarawa State in Northern Nigeria. The main aim of establishing the university was to provide avenue for university education for the indigenes of the state (NSUK, 2007). It took off with three faculties namely, Arts and Social Sciences, Education, and Natural and Applied Sciences. The university has three major campuses; the main campus at Keffi that has six faculties, Lafia campus where its Faculty of Agriculture is located, and Pyanku where the School of Remedial Studies is located. All are within Nasarawa State, North-Central Nigeria. It provides both undergraduate and graduate education.

EBSU – Ebonyi State University (EBSU) is situated at South-Eastern part of Nigeria. Previously, it was a university college affiliated to Enugu State University of Science and Technology (ESUT). It became a full-fledged university in 1999, "fully committed to development of academic programmes in the areas of law, sciences and technology" (EBSU, 2009?). Its establishment resulted out of the aspiration of the people from Ebonyi state to have their own university that would "encourage the advancement of learning and research" which would help rewrite the "history of educational backwardness of Ebonyi people" (EBSU, 2009?, p.d). It runs degree, post degree, pre-degree and work and study programmes. The mission of the university is "To provide a conducive atmosphere for teaching, learning, research and rapid development in order to transform the hitherto, untapped, abundant unskilled, human resources in Ebonyi state into skilled power" (EBSU website).

BIU – Benson Idahosa University (BIU) is a private Christian university in South-South Nigeria established in 2002 by Archbishop Benson Idahosa. The university has a broad aim of providing academic excellence in university education with spiritual development of students (BIU, 2006). Its key services to accomplish its mission include "teaching, research, community development, character building and capacity building" (BIU, 2006, p.5). Its basic objective is summarized as providing all-embracing Christian education that combines academic excellence with virtues of morality, respect for human dignity, hard

work, and fear of God. The university started with an initial student enrolment of 400 in two faculties. BIU has collaborations locally with Ambrose Ali University and University of Benin; and internationally with Oral Roberts University, with an agreement signed with the University of Delaware in USA. It is currently located at its take-off Campus at Ugbor Quarters in Benin, South-South Nigeria.

BOU – Bowen University (BOU) is a private university established in 2002 by the Nigerian Baptist Convention. Its name is given after the Reverend Thomas Jefferson Bowen, who pioneered Baptist work in Nigeria in 1850 (Bowen, 2007). The guiding philosophy/motto of the university is “Excellence and Godliness” which reflects its emphasis to combine academic excellence with God-fearing attitude in conformity with “the Baptist tradition of ethical behaviour, social responsibility and democratic ethos” (Bowen, 2007). Run as a Christian institution, the distinctive features it intends to portray include Christian morality, vocational and apprenticeship orientation, inculcation of work ethics and self-reliance through work-study programme. All these would be provided in the most cost-effective manner. Currently, the university runs a college and five faculties (Bowen website). BOU is situated in South-West Nigeria.

#### **4.6 Research Instruments for Collecting Data**

Documentary analysis or reading of documents (Annum, 2014) provides historical accounts on factors that shaped events in the working conditions of academics in the Nigerian university system and led to the perceived problems in their organizational commitment and university performance. The kind of documents used in the study include press releases and interviews by university workers unions such as the Academic Staff Union of University (ASUU) press conferences, administrative documents that are available in public domain, accounts of eminent Nigerian scholars especially on history of Nigerian education, newspapers articles and some other prominent works on university education in Nigeria. The review enabled the researcher to answer the questions related to the historical background of the issues in the Nigerian university system which are related to the study. This historical aspect also helped in shaping or identifying the areas to study. Prior to the full-scale survey, informal interviews (preliminary or exploratory interviews) were conducted with a few academic staff in two public sector universities as part of information gathering and understanding of issues to deal with, or areas of concern in the research. The issues identified were now researched in more depth in the full-scale research for definition of concepts and indicators of some performance measure. It also helped in shaping the title of the thesis. The outcome in the preliminary study was not

intended to be used for triangulation purpose. However, since it was a step towards the research process it has to be reported and referenced where necessary. This step seems to be supported by Sekeran and Bougie (2013, p.36) who pointed out that such preliminary information gathering done through interview and literature review can help the researcher narrow down “the broad problem area into a feasible topic for research”. In order to get the perspective of a large number of the academics rather than the opinion of a few of them, questionnaires were used in the full-scale research. A questionnaire known as Academic Staff Working Conditions and Goals Achievement in Nigeria Questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data on perception of the academic staff about their working conditions and qualitative information about organizational commitment. In the quantitative or structured section (that is, with guidance provided for the answer), questions on demographic variables were included. In the qualitative or unstructured section (that is, with open-ended or unrestricted questions) questions seeking information on factors important for personal growth and their description of a perfect working condition were also included. Another instrument, University Goals Achievement in Nigeria Questions was used to collect quantitative data on university performance on specific university goal areas. The instruments were developed based on the findings during the preliminary qualitative interview and review of literature on indicators of performance measure in Nigerian universities. Questionnaires were used so that feedback could be obtained from a large number of respondents in a more economical manner, allowing anonymous feedback which encourages the respondent to be more open and honest.

The structured sections, sections 1 and 2, consisted of closed questions whereby the respondents were provided choices and scale respectively, to select answers that apply to their situation. Section 1 of the questionnaire consists of 5 items that sought for demographic data in such areas as university proprietorship, sex, age, qualification, and rank; section 2 contains 28 items that measured the poor/excellent satisfaction level of academic staff on five broad facets of working conditions: salary and fringe benefits (items 1-3), career and professional development (items 4-6, 23, 27-28), work environment (items 7-11, 26), teaching resources and facilities (items 12-17), governance and leadership (items 18-22, 24-25). These items were measured on a 10-point summative scale, believing that higher scales are more likely to give higher reliability. A research by Preston and Colman (2000) on optimal number of response categories in rating scales found that several indices of reliability and validity performed relatively poor on lower point scales of 2, 3 and 4, but significantly higher for scales with higher response

categories with respondents showing highest preferences for 10-point scale, followed by 7-point scale and 9-point scale.

The qualitative section (section 3) consist of focused open questions that allow respondents provide answers in their own words thus, providing richer insight into their situation in their universities. It contains open-ended questions for participants to express their views on issues of personal growth; conditions that will make them more inclined to remain in the university, other factors important to them, and what ‘perfect’ working conditions look like.

The instrument for collecting performance data, the University Goals Achievement in Nigeria Questions, contains closed checklist of questions developed by the researcher to collect objective or numeric data on performance of the universities on factors related to specific university goal areas of teaching, research, and community services using performance indicators for specific goals. This is completed in the administrative units of the universities. It contains 21 questions, divided into sections. Section “A” contains seven items seeking information on teaching accomplishment (items 1-7), section “B” on research and publication (items 8-11), section “C” on community and public services (12-14), section “D” on corporate indicators, section “E” on other issues related to staff development. The 21<sup>st</sup> question sought the recommendation of administrators on ways to improve performance on the goal areas. The reference period for objective data collected in the study was between years 2009 to 2011.

It is important to note here that the multiple methods used to gather information to answer the research question are not meant for corroborative or triangulation purpose as pointed out in section 4.3.2 under the philosophical position of the research. The informal preliminary interviews helped to enrich the investigation. It did not follow any formal design and is not answering any research question but generated ideas used to design the research at full-scale, hence improving the validity of the findings. As pointed out earlier instruments for data collection in survey can be questionnaire, interview, or observation (e.g. Descombe, 2010; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013) and document (e.g. Denscombe, 2010).

#### **4.6.1 Reliability and Validity**

Most discussions about reliability and validity seem to be concerned with quantitative research. This suggests that both concepts are rooted in quantitative research (Cohen and Crabtree, 2003). However, for Remenyi et al (1998), the fact that the concepts were developed for positivist research designs does not mean they are not valid quality checks

for non-positivist research. Though, in the case of non-positivist research, considering its nature, milder approach is used. In their review of published criteria for good qualitative research, Cohen and Crabtree (2003) observed that common ground had been negotiated and the widely accepted criteria were: carrying out ethical research, preparing a clear and coherent research report, and using appropriate rigorous methods; all are applicable to all research. However, they noted that different ideas emerged for framing the criteria researcher bias, validity, and verification or reliability for qualitative research, as there were resistance. They concluded after their review that qualitative research is not unified on issues of researcher bias, validity and reliability as there were divergent perspectives heavily influenced by quantitative and experimental approaches. In this regard, Bryman and Bell (2007, p.43) identified “trustworthiness” as the criterion suggested by Guba and Lincoln (1985) for assessing qualitative research. It is noted that each aspect of trustworthiness has a parallel with the criteria for quantitative research, and include:

- i. Credibility, parallels internal validity – i.e. how believable are the findings
- ii. Transferability, parallels external validity – i.e. do the findings apply to other context;
- iii. Dependability, parallels reliability – i.e. are the finding likely to apply at other times;
- iv. Confirmability, parallels objectivity – i.e. has the investigator allowed his or her values to intrude to a high degree.

Reliability concerns the extent to which the data collection techniques and analysis procedures will produce “consistent findings” (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, pp.156-157). The concern of reliability is “how replicable the study is” (Remenyi et al, 1998, p.115). It is also concerned with repeatability (Wilson, 2010), that is “whether or not the measures that are devised for concepts in business and management (such as teamworking, employee motivation, organizational effectiveness) are consistent” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, pp.40-41). According Remenyi et al (1998), for non-positivist research, the concern is to investigate the manifestation of an issue in a particular setting. In this case, it would be difficult to reproduce the condition under which a particular study has been conducted. Hence, citing Marshall and Rossman (1995), “following good practice guidelines” is important to overcome the problem of reliability than “pretend that research conditions can be replicable”. In another development, Anikweze (2012, p.2) discussing about operationalization of constructs especially in educational research seems to provide another way of dealing with the issue of reliability. He suggested the use of more than one

operationalization of a construct. This is because, “Each operational definition is likely to be incomplete, capturing only one small part of the meaning of the construct”. When more than one operational definition is used, “one will be able to better cover the richness and complexity of the construct under investigation besides being able to compute a measure of the reliability of the measurement”. Downing (2004) made similar suggestions for improving reliability of assessment methods in medical education, recommending the use of large number of test questions. The idea was utilized in the present research, especially in the construction of the structured section of the questionnaire. This is noticeable in the case of items related to how the academics perceived their conditions with regard to salary and fringe benefits, career and professional development, working environment, teaching resources and facilities, and governance and leadership. These had more than one operationalization. Further, the measure of university performance involved the use of multiple indicators of university performance in teaching and research objectives of the universities. As suggested by Yin (2003 cited in Wilson, 2010) in the case of case study research, the multiplicity of methods used to collect evidence or results that were used in reaching conclusion also helped in increasing the reliability of the findings. Subject or participant error and subject or participant bias are some of the threats to reliability. To forestall the problem of participant bias, the instruments for data collection were made anonymous. Any inclusion of personal details was made optional.

Validity deals with the concern about whether “the findings are really about what they appear to be about” (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, pp.156-157). That is the integrity of the conclusions from a particular research (Bryman and Bell, 2007). There are different types of validity. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), measurement (or construct) validity deals with the question about whether the measure devised for a concept truly reflect the concept. External validity deals with the issue about generalizability. That is if the result from the study can be extended beyond the specific context it was conducted. This is where representativeness of a sample becomes very vital. The concern of ecological validity was described by Bryman and Bell (2007, p.42) as “whether or not social scientific findings are applicable to people’s every day, natural settings”. That is, whether “our instruments capture the daily life conditions, opinions, values, attitudes, and knowledge base of those we study as expressed in their natural settings” (Cicourel, 1982, p.15, cited in Bryman and Bell, 2007, p.42). Threats to validity as listed by (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) include history; mortality, instrumentation. Random selection of sample in order to equate different groups of respondents and use of the appropriate instrument for data collection can help to minimize



some of these threats. Asika (1991, cited in Njoku, 1997) believes that issue of validity in a research is superior to reliability and should attract more attention. This is based on the assumption that a valid instrument has a high probability of being reliable whereas a reliable instrument may not be valid. This seems to be supported by other authors such as Bryman and Bell (2007) who regard validity as the most important criterion in business research, explaining that it deals with integrity of conclusion from a study. Believing that there is sense in the above assumption, without disregarding reliability, a great deal of attention was paid to the issue of validity in this research. This is observed by the following actions taken by the researcher:

- i. an in-depth literature review and documentary analysis on the key variables and historical accounts of other issues related to the study which helped validate findings by identifying issues to study and operationalization of concepts. This helps increase measurement/construct validity ;
- ii. Preliminary investigation/ informal interaction of the researcher with a few members of the academic staff of some universities in Nigeria during which their views and ideas were solicited on the subject matter of the research. Though the discussions were informal and therefore, not subjected to any statistical analysis, inputs from those interviewed shaded more light on the issues found in literature relating to the topic. Apart from this, the interaction helped to get opinion of the academic staff regarding issues about their work and some idea about their understanding of the subject matter under investigation. It helped in identifying the appropriate use of constructs and indicators used for certain measures in the research. That is, the interviews helped in suggesting the definitions and empirical indicators of some of the factors studied at the quantitative stage of data collection. This action helped to increase measurement validity and ecological validity of the findings.
- iii. Following these, questionnaire instrument for collection of quantitative and qualitative data, first draft was developed and discussed with an Associate Professor in education, a measurement and evaluation expert, an academic Doctor in education, a professor and member of Senate/chief executive of an education regulatory agency all in Nigeria; and the supervisor of the researcher. They were to find out if essential areas had been covered in the questionnaire, possible items that could be eliminated or merged if they considered the questionnaire to be too lengthy, items they felt the lecturers would not be able to find answer to and any other general comment they consider necessary. Having noted their observation,

the second draft of the questionnaire and an instrument for collecting objective data on performance were developed. Again, this helped to increase measurement or construct validity and ecological validity.

- iv. After effecting necessary corrections, the items were pilot-tested using 10 academic staff selected from the university communities in Nigeria in order to refine the instrument.
- v. Sampling of participants in a manner to ensure that a relatively good representative sample is used for the research. The sample came from the two regional divides of Nigeria, included universities from the three sectorial divides of Nigerian university system, and questionnaires distributed in such a way to ensure that all categories of staff were fairly represented.

#### **4.6.1 (a). Justification of sample size, sampling technique and Validity (Internal and External Validity)**

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) noted that much is not yet written about data collection procedure in mixed method research. They pointed out that the only written work about the subject is on sampling strategies by Teddlie and Yu (2007) who also indicated that there are no widely accepted sampling strategies in mixed methods. This notwithstanding, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) advised that mixed methods researchers should not lose sight of the fact that they are collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, hence the need to be familiar with both the quantitative and qualitative data collection procedures. They encouraged creative qualitative data collection procedure and careful selection of quantitative instruments. Further, they observed that it is possible to combine both random (quantitative) and purposeful (qualitative) sampling procedures.

According to Denscombe (2010), in surveys, some of the considerations with regard to sampling techniques and sample size include: whether the researcher's purpose is to produce a representative sample or exploratory sample; whether qualitative or quantitative data addresses the research question; and the amount of resources available (in terms of money and time). Further, he identified three basic approaches to calculating sample size as: statistical approach – mainly useful for large-scale surveys and probability sampling techniques; pragmatic approach – useful in smaller-scale surveys partly due to costs and partly inability of the researcher to meet all the conditions needed for statistical approach to sample size calculation; and cumulative approach – normally associated with qualitative. In addition, where the intention is to produce exploratory sample, the sample

size is usually smaller compared to where a representative sample is the interest. The first main reason for this is to allow the study of each item or person to be included in the sample in greater depth and more detail. Secondly, the size of exploratory sample is not governed by issues bothering on accuracy but on how informative the sample is. However, Denscombe (2010) advised that caution should be exercise with regard to generalization from the findings, pointing out that, the findings need not be invalidated in so far the limitations are acknowledged and taken into account.

Heterogeneity of the population of the study is another consideration provided by Bryman and Bell (2007) on decision about sample size. According to them, the more heterogeneous a population is, the larger the sample size needs to be than when the population is homogeneous. Further, the kind of analysis researchers intend to undertake is another consideration. With review of some research involving multiple methods of data collection, Bryman and Bell (2007) further observed that cross-sectional design in business and management studies tend not to be clearly divided into those that use quantitative or qualitative methods.

The present research is exploratory. As such, the intention of the researcher is not to provide a final or conclusive answer to the existing problem, but a basis that can inform a more conclusive study. The universities in each proprietorship category (i.e. federal, state and private), share very similar characteristics, except for their geographic location which was also accommodated in the stratification process. Therefore, fewer cases are needed to represent the homogeneous categories (Denscombe, 2010; Schutt, 2011). In order not to restrict the information to the opinion of a limited number of academics, the researcher decided to use questionnaire in data collection. Sekaran and Bougie (2013) support the use of survey strategy in exploratory research as it lends itself to the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data from different types of research questions. Supporting the use of questionnaires in place of interviews for large sample, Flanagan (1954) indicated that, if the respondents read the instructions carefully and respond conscientiously, the results seem not to be essentially different from those obtained using interview method. In addition, academics, by the nature of their profession, are familiar with the nature of their work and can provide accurate information from open-ended questions.

As an exploratory study that is trying to gain more understanding of the topic of interest, coupled with the homogeneous characteristics of the three university categories, the sample size of the universities need not be large. This is also in recognition of the researcher's limited resources. As an exploratory study, the researcher is interested in

studying the topic in a relatively in-depth manner which has implication for the researcher's time and fund available. Time and financial involvement were further constraints as the researcher was on study leave with specific time for completion. The geographic separation between some of the universities suggested that greater time and efforts would be needed for coordination of the data collection process, especially the collection of the objective performance data which was quite strenuous.

However, the researcher took time to ensure representativeness of the sampled universities based on some important identified criteria that could make the result a good reference beyond the sample of Nigerian universities used. Therefore, in order to represent the opinion of academics (the main subject of interest) from the three university proprietorship across the two main cultural/geographic boundaries of Nigeria, the researcher resorted to the use of probability sampling. Drawing sample based on the different subgroups of proprietorship, location, and age made it possible to include most of the factors that can affect results from the survey and increase representativeness. According to Schutt (2011), homogeneity increases the confidence a researcher has on representativeness of sample of any size, while stratified random sampling makes sampling more efficient. This is because it enhances the representation of key elements or strata across the identified strata of the population. Therefore, probability sampling approach reduces systematic bias or sampling error unlike the non-probability sampling. The intention of the researcher was to analyse resulting data from the study both as a single data set and along the line of some of the identified strata such as proprietorship. Stratification provides the opportunity of having reasonable data for analysis based on this category of strata (Bryan and Bell, 2007). The study was not originally aiming at statistical representativeness but at characteristics of importance that could help generate more comprehensive information as to the needs of the academics in their work and at the same time look acceptable to larger population of the academics. For a more in-depth exploratory study, the researcher, therefore, needed a small proportion of the accessible population of universities as pointed out by Denscombe (2010), since the universities in each university category have almost similar features. Denscombe (2010, p.41) noted further that there is no absolute rule for issue of sample size in case of exploratory survey research since the main interest is deep probing and "how *informative* the sample is".

Stratified random sampling (a form of probability sampling technique) provides more credible result because they reflect most of the characteristics of the population from which they are drawn. This is unlike the non-probability techniques which are prone to

bias and difficult to defend their representativeness. However, the major disadvantage of stratified random sampling and/or probability sampling techniques when compared with the non-probability sampling techniques is that it is difficult to be carried out in terms of time and money. This is because advanced and detailed information about the population make-up would be required.

**External validity:** External validity has to do with the extent to which the results from the investigation can be applied to a wider population or generalized beyond the specific context of the research (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Although the researcher does not claim statistical representativeness of the university sample, in order to increase external validity, the researcher took some other measures in sampling of the universities and respondents. These include:

- i. Use of probability sampling technique. The technique has the advantage of ensuring representativeness of a sample by reducing sampling error (Bryman and Bell, 2007). It helps increase the degree of generalization unlike the non-probability sampling technique that limits generalization. The type of probability sampling technique used is the stratified random sampling technique. This ensures that every stratum is represented in the selection as much as possible. This was in terms of university proprietorship (i.e. federal, state, and private), age of university and geographic location. Therefore, different contexts related to the universities in Nigeria were taken care of in the selection of the six universities used in order to have a university sample that is somewhat representative. Stratified random sampling ensures that all the strata in the population were included in the sample. Hence, selection bias was controlled as much as possible in the sampling process. The disadvantage of this technique is that it is tedious and time-consuming.
- ii. The selections of respondents from the six universities were based on fairly similar criteria. For instance, the respondents were selected from those faculties or departments that run courses that seem to cut across the three university categories (federal, state and private) in Nigeria.
- iii. The ideal population of study was clearly defined, accessible and reliable (Pannucci and Wilkins, 2010).
- iv. The participants were asked the same questions.

**Internal Validity:** Internal validity relates mainly to the issues of causality and is of highest concern in experimental studies (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Pannucci and

Wilkins, 2010; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). For surveys or questionnaires, it seeks to know if the questionnaire is actually measuring what the researcher is supposed to measure, truly and completely, in the research (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Wiersma, n.d); or whether the questions the researcher asked can truly explain the intended outcome of the research (Mora, 2011). That is, if the research instrument is measuring the right thing and also reflects adequate coverage of what is being studied (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Wilson, 2010; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Wiersma, n.d). There are two main types of validity implied above, that is, content and construct validity. According to Wilson (2010), there are two aspects to content validity: one is if the instrument is measuring the right things i.e. face validity (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Wilson, 2010) and if the measure covers “all areas within the nature of your study” (Wilson, 2010, p.120). On the other hand, construct validity concerns if the measurement questions are actually measuring the presence of the constructs the researcher intends to measure or the correct operational measures for the concepts studied (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Yin, 2003, p.34 cited in Wilson, 2010).

In the present research, the following steps were taken by the research to enhance internal validity:

- i. The domain of the concepts studied was well defined and the items generated for which opinion was sought were based on the domain of the study. This helped to increase content validity (Malhotra and Grover, 1998)
- ii. Conducting a preliminary interview with some members of the academic staff in Nigerian university system. This was done to uncover dimensions of working conditions and goals of Nigerian universities related to the work of the academic staff. The exercise provided indicators that stood for the concepts of academic staff working conditions and university performance. Hence, the content of the questionnaires reflect issues related to the work of the academics in Nigerian universities, and also provided information on multiple measures of the concepts of working conditions and university performance.
- iii. In-depth literature review was conducted on the topics related to the study and served as another source for indicators for measures of the concepts of working conditions and university performance in the research.
- iv. The draft of the questions in the questionnaire generated after the preliminary study and literature review were discussed with experts in the Nigerian

- university system who are familiar with the topic studied and also with the researcher's supervisor before refinement (Wilson, 2010; Radhakrishna, 2014).
- v. Multiple indicators were used as measures of factors related to working conditions and performance. This helped to increase construct validity (Wilson, 2010; Anikweze, 2012; Harris, n.d).

#### **4.6.2 Data Collection**

This section discusses how data were collected in the study. The historic evolution of the motivation, organizational commitment and performance problems in Nigerian universities was provided through review of documents as presented in chapter two. Official documents as they exist in the public domain were used. Press releases from ASUU and published articles and books by eminent Nigerian scholars and international bodies on Nigerian universities were used to provide evidence on the evolution of the perceived motivational and performance issues in the Nigerian system that led to the exit of many of the academics in the university system (e.g. NUC, 1994; Saint et al, 2003; Yaqub, 2007; Okebukola, 2010; ASUU, 2009; Ibidapo-Obe, 2010). A qualitative interviews conducted at the preliminary stage helped to identify factors of concern to academic staff and goal areas of Nigerian universities to study. The process followed for the interviews is presented in chapter four, section 4.6.4. However, this interview was informal and used to aid development of the main survey instrument. Subsequently, a questionnaire was developed to collect quantitative data on academic staff feelings about their working conditions and qualitative data on factors of personal growth and commitment to remain in the university. Another instrument was used to collect figures on university performance from the administrative units.

The questionnaires attached with consent forms and participant information sheets were sent to selected participants in the six universities studied. Procedure for distribution depended on the situation in the field. Each questionnaire was accompanied with two consent forms and explanation about the purpose of the research with assurance about confidentiality of the information they provide. In some of the universities, in order to gain cooperation, distribution of the questionnaires was done through the offices of some heads of departments using their secretaries or assistants as is the case with the private universities, some departments in one of the federal and one of the state universities. The questionnaires, in most cases were returned through them. In one of the states and one of the federal universities, distribution was facilitated through the assistance of two lecturers

working in the universities. In other cases the distribution was done by the researcher with some research assistants.

The instrument for collecting performance data was left with administrative divisions of the various universities to fill-in the figures for the requested information. These were also accompanied with consent forms that were completed by the heads of the units preparing the data.

#### **4.6.3 Method of Data Analysis**

##### **i. Thematic Analysis**

Thematic analysis is defined as a qualitative data reduction process which involves “segmentation, categorisation and relinking of aspects of the database prior to the final interpretation” (Grbich, 2007, p.16). It is “the process of identifying themes in the data which capture meaning that is relevant to the research question” and may as well link such themes (Willig, 2014). In their attempt to provide a guide to researchers that want to use thematic analysis in a manner that is more deliberate and rigorous, Braun and Clarke (2006) described the method as one that identifies, analyses, and reports patterns (themes) within data; minimally organises and describes data in rich details; and sometimes goes beyond this to interpret different aspects of the research topic (Boyatzis, 1998, cited in Braun and Clarke, 2006). The process is likely to involve focus on the frequency of occurrence of certain words or phrases, incidents, and others, regarded as themes (Grbich, 2007; Bryman and Bell, 2007). According to Bryman and Bell (2007), this focus on frequency of occurrence suggests the reason why some themes gain more prominence in the report of the outcome of qualitative data analysis. This implies that some level of quantification influence the identification of themes and in priority given to some themes over others in qualitative data analysis, they noted.

Braun and Clarke (2006) posit that thematic analysis is not wed to any pre-existing theoretical framework; as such it can be used within different theoretical framework, and for different things within them. It works both to reflect reality, and to unravel the surface of reality. That means, thematic analysis is flexible, allowing for rich, detailed and complex description of data. This is useful in the current research in a pragmatic sense, instead of the limitations imposed by some other methods of data analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006) provided some questions that guide a rigorous thematic analysis to include: what count as a theme and what size it needs to be; if the analyst wants rich description of data set or a detailed account of one particular aspect; if analysis is going to be inductive



(bottom up way) or theoretical/deductive (top down way); if the identification of themes would be at the semantic/surface/explicit level or at latent/beyond the surface level; and epistemological consideration.

The processes of identifying the themes that emerge from the data occur in the course of coding (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Rossman and Rallis (1998, cited in Creswell, 2009, p.186) describes coding as the process of organizing the entire qualitative data material collected into “chunks or segments of text before bringing meaning to information”. That is, sentences or paragraphs in the qualitative data collected are segmented into categories and a label is given to each of the categories.

The analytical method used in the present study for analysing the qualitative aspect of the questionnaire is the thematic analysis. The analysis was done inductively, with rich description, themes identified at the surface meaning of the data. It involves identifying themes or factors that lecturers considered important for their personal growth and to remain in the university. The themes were identified based on meaning of a specific response to the researcher in relation to the categories of working conditions identified and used in the structured section of the questionnaire. Though key themes were identified based on frequency or numbers of people that made reference to them, themes that capture something important in relation to the research question were all considered. In doing this, the responses were first studied, themes identified by highlighters and then coded. The coding process considered either single or short sentences as important as long or lengthy responses, so long as the sentence contained something relevant to the reason question. Five categories or classes of working conditions were formed based on the grouping used in developing the questions in structured section of the questionnaire; that is, salary and fringe benefits, career and professional development, working environment, teaching resources and facilities, and governance and leadership. The data themes identified are sorted into these categories by coding. To help our understanding and achieve greater insight into the meaning of the results obtained, numerical values are assigned to the results in form of frequency, percentage and rank.

There was constant comparison of the data with the concepts and categories that were used in other to explore the relationship between them (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Such activity coupled with the use of “quasi-statistics” is regarded by Maxwell (2005) as parts of the important checks for validity in qualitative research. Miles and Huberman (1994, p.252) used the word ‘counting’ to refer to this process. They gave three good reasons in using numbers in some qualitative research: “to see rapidly what you have in

large batch of data; to verify a hunch or hypothesis; and to keep yourself analytically honest, protecting against bias”. According to Maxwell 2005, p.113),

*“Many of the conclusions of qualitative studies have an implicit quantitative component. Any claim that a particular phenomenon is typical, rare, or prevalent in the setting or population studied is an inherently quantitative claim, and requires some quantitative support” (Maxwell, 2005, p.113).*

In the present study, comparison is made at the different levels of analysis; that is, at the general participant level, university ownership level and individual university level. Numbers, percentages or frequency of occurrences of the respondents that referred to the themes identified are presented in tables. These issues, including noting patterns, themes; building a logical chain of evidence; and making conceptual/theoretical coherence are among the indices or ways Miles and Huberman (1994) noted can be used in drawing and verifying conclusions in qualitative research.

## **ii. Document Review/Narrative Analysis of Historical Documents**

Document review is described by the Centers for Disease Control (CDC) of the Department of Health and Human Services (2009) as a way of collecting data by reviewing documents. One of the reasons for doing the review is to understand the history of the issue you are trying to study. Document review is a good source of background information (CDC, 2009). According to the centre’s article on the topic of document review, the planning and review process include a) assessing existing documents and determining which one is relevant to the research question; b) compiling the documents that are relevant to the study question; c) determining the accuracy of the documents by comparing documents with similar information; d) summarise the information from the documents.

Evaluating if the information is primary or secondary information has also been identified to be important in document review (Belanger, 2006; Ingeborg et al, n.d). That is, if the person reporting was present or has first-hand knowledge of the information or not. Primary information is considered more reliable though both type of information may be present in the same item. In the present research, both primary and secondary authors are used. There would also be consideration about who the author is and those that may have contributed the information. This will enable understanding about the accuracy of the information; that is, if there might have been reasons for possible bias (Ingeborg et al, n.d). Document review has the advantages of being inexpensive, and a good source of background information. Morrell (n.d) highlighted the advantages of documentary data.

These includes the fact that documents are “unobtrusive” (p.1), can form basis for triangulation, basis for comparison and contrast, and encourage ingenuity. Its disadvantages include the possibility of bias, inaccuracy or incompleteness of the information, and time consuming where there are many documents to collect, review and analyse

Belanger (2006) provided some guideline for analysing documents. Analysing the document include determining in the main body, the content of the document. Here you find out what is the author’s argument which includes main theme; secondary themes, summarising them briefly but thoroughly. Further, there is the need to determine the believability of the document. This has to do with knowing the credibility of the information, one of which is done through corroboration with other sources, authorship, date and location. After analysis, the information should be evaluated (conclusion). In this process the core thesis of the document or the author is reaffirmed, with personal evaluation of the information, and if possible situating it within a wider context.

Historical inquiry can also involve narrative analysis, which shows and explains basic story of events that had occurred over time (Odiagbe, 2012). Some researchers consider fragmentation of qualitative data into categories and themes to be inappropriate as it does not seem to retain the original told form or integrity of the data collected by the researcher (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

The analytical approach used in the preliminary interview data and review of the documentary section of the study followed a narrative pattern. This involves the selection, organization and analysis of the interview and historic materials to capture themes that are topical in the documents and then pulling the themes together into a story-like form. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) note that narrative analysis may be used as a principal means of analysing qualitative data, or it can be a complementary means. The authors indicated that the procedure helps the researcher to “explore linkages, relationships and socially constructed explanations that naturally occur within narrative accounts, where fragmentation of these into categories and themes would therefore be rendered unnecessary” (p.514). Citing Gabriel and Griffiths (2004), they pointed out that, for data collected in the form of stories such as semi-structured or unstructured interview, the issue of accuracy is often of minimal importance than the points made and what the points symbolise. Narrative analysis has its focus on story told by participants about their experiences (Grbich, 2007; Willig, 2014). Grbich (2007) identified two main versions of narrative analysis, following the historical division between the story and the plot. These

are socio-linguistic and socio-cultural analyses. The former, socio-linguistic, is described as focusing on ‘plots’ or structure of the narratives and the way they convey meaning; that is, including its internal organization and linguistic features (Grbich, 2007; Willig, 2014). The later, socio-cultural analysis is more interested in the content of the story, seeking broader interpretive frameworks that help the researcher understand the relationship between the stories told and the subjective experience of the storyteller (Grbich, 2007; Willig, 2014). The story is describe as the “actual action or event which occurs” while the plot is “the orderly arrangement wherein events are presented to the reader” (Grbich, 2007, p.125). Though these two options are available for narrative analysis, the author suggests that a combination of the two approaches can serve as a powerful analytical tool.

Morrell (2008, p.617) suggests that narrative can be an “alternative mode of review to the ‘systematic review’”. According to him “there are many features to life that involve the use of alternative principles” (p.619). Citing Huxley (1947) the author notes that system can put a constraint and hence, limit the effectiveness of research activity, and liberty (p.621). In a lecture, Songer (n.d) pointed out that there is no one standard for examining and assessing narrative data, just as Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill seem to suggest that fragmentation of data through categorisation and coding may not be necessary in narrative analysis. Songer noted that, there are different sources of data in narrative analysis studies which often may include case studies, existing documents (such as archives and records), forms of media (newspaper, audio accounts). Again, in another of his work, Morrell (n.d) cited Barry and Elmes (1997), opining that documents are authored and created, with an audience in mind. In this wise they can be treated as stories, or narratives. He offered guidelines on narrative analysis of documents in relation to the research question. The steps include deciding on the relevant documents; identify themes and plots, rhetorical devices such as lists, pair, contrasts, headlines or emphasis, etc. Plots are literary terms, described as events making up the story especially as they relate to one another in a pattern, sequence, through cause and effect, how the reader views the story, or simply by coincidence (Wikipedia). In using narrative approach in the present study, the researcher considered the major historical themes in the documents used that are evidences of perceived motivational problems among the academics in Nigerian university system and what gave rise to them. Themes evidencing problems of organizational commitment and university performance resulting from these issues are also included. The analysis adapted to a reasonable extent, incorporated the combination of the two narrative approaches identified by Grbich (2007) and Willig (2014). Broad descriptions of the structural elements usually present in narratives were identified by Coffey and Atkinson (1996, cited

in Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, p.498) to include the following: a) what the story is about; b) what happened, to whom, whereabouts and why? c) the consequences that arose from this; d) the significance of these events; and d) the final outcome.

### **iii. Quantitative Data Analysis**

Quantitative data refers to numerical or quantified data and can be the product of any research strategy (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Such data are analysed through quantitative analysis technique after coding or recording the data. Different statistical operations on the quantitative data are available depending on the level the variables are measured (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Since the scale used in measuring the working condition scores in the structured part of the questionnaire in the present study is at interval level, it means that descriptive statistics such as means and frequencies can be used in the analysis to explore the scores for the different variables of working conditions (e.g. Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Brown (2011); Boone Jr and Boone (2012) have indicated that Likert scales contain multiple items and therefore, respondents scores can be summed and means calculated; standard deviation and other inferential tests done as applicable to interval data. Brown (2011) further noted that whether Likert items are ordinal or interval is irrelevant in the analysis of Likert scale data which can be taken to be interval, hence lending itself to the use of descriptive statistics such as means and percentages, standard deviation for variability, as well as other parametric tests. He also advised researchers not to dwell heavily on interpreting single items as they are relatively unreliable than Likert scale which contains multiple items and more reliable. For Likert items, it is also advised that modes, median, frequencies and chi-square are appropriate for their analysis (Boone, Jr and Boone, 2012). In his discussion on test of association between two variables, Denscombe (2010) observed that chi-square test can also work with interval and ratio data. In the current research, mean, percentages, standard deviation, frequency, and chi-square were used for analysis. The chi-square was used to test if there were significant association between the demographic variables, gender and proprietorship, and satisfaction with some identified items of the questionnaire. A visual summary using bar chart was also used after the raw data had been coded. Means and percentages were used in exploring performances of the universities studied.

#### **4.6.4 Report of the Preliminary Interviews**

This section explains the outcome of the preliminary interviews conducted with academic staff from two universities prior to the commencement of the full-scale research. It was

conducted in order for the researcher to have an idea of what the topic entails, weigh the understanding of the intended participants about the subject matter of the research, gain understanding of the best way to conduct the study and get from some of the academics, first hand, their feelings about their job, from their own perspectives. The visit to the universities was on an informal basis, as there was no prior permission or information to the interviewee about the interview in most of the cases. The intention was to get some inputs/ideas of some experts, union members and some other key staff before generating the instrument (questionnaire) for the main data collection. Part of the information sought was also meant to validate what is already in literature about the subject matter studied. The initial title of the topic of the research was “Levels of employee incentives and achievement of university goals among selected universities in Nigeria”. The analytical method used in reporting the outcome of the interviews is narrative analysis. This involves identification of themes and creating conceptual groupings from the interview data.

The two universities were selected due to ease of access to the researcher. My intention was to ask some academics that care to help questions that could help me progress in my research work. Any academic from any other university in Nigeria would have also served the same purpose. The interview process and its approach in this section should therefore, be considered to be self-directed, not unique, but developed out of necessity for more understanding of concepts and obtain more information that would guide the research process.

A total of eight staff were interviewed. These included research methodology expert so as to understand the appropriate research framework/design, a director of academic planning in order to get some information on some of the indices used in measuring performance, some Heads of Department and experienced academic staff, and union members considered to be at the forefront in the demand for better working conditions in the universities. The first visit to one of the universities was on 21<sup>st</sup> March, 2011 with two people interviewed. Another schedule was made for three more people to be interviewed on 23<sup>rd</sup> March but only two out of the three people were available on the scheduled date. The second university was visited on 22<sup>nd</sup> March, 2011 where four more people were interviewed. The interview process took the form of informal discussion. The basic questions put to these people are listed in table 4.1 below:

**Table 4.1: List of questions at the preliminary interview**

SN	Questions
1	What can a researcher look for in terms of incentives for academic staff in Nigerian universities?
2	What generally constitutes university goals in Nigeria?
3	Which of the university goals could be more directly related to academic staff performance?
4	How can incentives in the different universities be measured and compared?
5	How can achievement of goals in the different universities be measured and compared?
6	Which overall strategy could be used to see if there is a correlation between level of incentives and goal attainment in universities?
7	Any general or specific documents, links and references that may help the study?

From the responses and general discussions on the above questions, it was clear that the issue of teaching resources and facilities were dominant among the factors listed by most of the respondents as important dimensions of incentives/working conditions for academic staff. The respondents enumerated issues such as information and communication technology (ICT), classrooms, quality of laboratories and libraries as some of the incentive issues impacting on their job which they went further to describe as inadequate. This validates what is in literature with regard to teaching resources and facilities. Various literatures have described the condition of facilities in the universities as inadequate, dilapidated and obsolete. Resources are also said to be unavailable and inadequate. For instance the issue of ICT was mentioned by authors such as Okebukola (2006), and Oni (2011) who cited the chairman of the senate committee on education talk about the situation of Nigerian universities and their inability to get early placement on top world ranking universities in recent world university ranking. The issue of ICT is regarded as serious in that its unavailability means that the academics will find it difficult to participate or take advantage of current issues or resources over the internet. The problem of ICT is further heightened by the erratic nature of electricity supply in the country which

was also listed as incentive issue in the universities. The situation is such that even when there is ICT facility available, utilizing it as at when needed becomes difficult and frustrating because of electric power failure. The light/electricity problem does not only affect ICT usage but other aspect of the work of the academic staff. It affects use of certain equipment in the laboratories and workshops, and other activities in the laboratories as complained by one of the respondents. Further, electricity problem makes working in the offices uncomfortable since lighting in the offices would be poor and the use of other electrical equipment like air-conditioner and ceiling fan that would reduce heat from the hot weather condition would not be possible, causing poor concentration.

Other factors commonly noted across the two institutions as issues of incentive include inadequate office space (crowded and most instances poorly furnished), social amenities such as transportation facilities, water, recreational facilities, housing, health centre, children of staff's school (staff school). Transportation is considered necessary considering the location of most of the universities. Since most of them are located in isolated areas of their communities, getting transportation to these areas most often is difficult. Most institutions to reduce transportation problem resort to engaging in transportation venture that would convey staff and students from certain points to the university. It was further observed that the academic staff are interested in the leadership style of the universities, especially with regard to "sponsorship to conferences, encouragement of seminars and publication, consultation on issues affecting staff so that they could make a difference in comparison with other universities".

Although the issue of salaries was mentioned in the course of the discussions as the major thing that pull individuals into universities, it was not with as much emphasis as with other factors such as teaching resources and facilities and other social amenities that help in the conduct of the assignments of the academics. This may be because of the recent agreement between the Federal Government and Academic Staff Union of Universities on new salaries for the academic staff, especially, in federal universities. The researcher learnt that the state university studied had also started implementing this salary for its academic staff. However, there were complaints on late implementation of approved standards and non-payment of arrears of the approved salaries. Again, one participant in the state university complained of "abnormal" (heavy) tax paid in the university from staff salary. According to him, if the high tax is not discouraged, it can make staff leave the university for newly opened ones.



One of the academics interviewed complained that NUC approvals most times were not implemented by university management. This was in consonance with the observation made by another respondent who said that “there is always a gap between established and implemented standards and this has implication on morale of staff and thus affect achievement of goals”. Another dimension of non-implementation of approved standard identified was in the area of release of approved budget for the universities. A respondent observed that government (sometimes) does not release the money it budgeted on time due to bureaucratic administrative procedure, thereby, resulting in non-utilization of the budgeted money for implementation of the project for which it was meant.

These conditions notwithstanding, some of the respondents enjoy the status and respect they believe goes with being an academic and the fact that they are helping to impart knowledge with advancement of their career. This was expressed by a respondent in the following way: “Is there anything more the while than being an academic? University is the highest echelon of knowledge... status is a societal idea”.

On university goals, although it was acknowledged that every university has its own special focus, the major goal was identified to be production of manpower for the different sectors in the country through the different programmes run by the universities. Other goals identified include research and development through staff initiated research projects and students research for award of degree, development of immediate community through areas such as education campaign against diseases, poverty alleviation through empowerment programmes, employment of junior workers and artisans, and so on; inculcating the culture of discipline in students.

#### **4.6.4(a) Conclusion from the interviews**

From the report of the preliminary interviews above, though incentive issues in the universities are varied, there is a strong discontentment with issues of teaching resources and facilities. This includes ICT, classroom space, quality of laboratories, libraries. Salaries and fringe benefit issues identified include late payment and release of approved funds. Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) also found delay in the payment of salary as one of the sources of stress to lecturers in Nigeria. Work environmental issues such as inadequate office space and lighting, recreational facilities, and social amenities such as electric power and water supply were also identified as incentive issues. Other work environmental factors listed as incentives include welfare issues such as housing, health centre, and children of staff’s school. Opportunity to attend conferences and seminars, and

publication were the career and professional issues of incentive identified by the respondents. Leadership style as it relates to conferences, seminars could also be interpreted to be how fair or equitable decisions regarding nominations and approvals are handled by management, or how fair the level of support is when compared to what colleagues in other universities are getting. Consultation on issues pertaining to the academics and their work was another leadership issue mentioned. Such consultation could relate to participatory decision-making of management. Ekong (2002) and Okecha (2008) reported authoritarian attitudes and high-handedness of some university management.

In the area of university goals related to the work of the academic staff, the three areas of university functions were identified: teaching, research, and community service/responsive social engagement. For teaching, the indicator is the production of manpower for the society and inculcating the culture of discipline in students. Research involves staff and student initiated projects. Community service/responsive social engagement includes activities that will help better the lots of the immediate community where the universities are sited. This includes education campaign against diseases; empowerment programmes that will help alleviate poverty. Employment of junior workers and artisans from the immediate community, though part of the social goals of a university is not considered by the researcher as related to the activities of the academics.

As a result of the findings, it is concluded that greater attention should be paid to the problem of teaching and resource facilities especially as it has to do with ICT, laboratories, libraries and classroom space.

Based on the researcher's understanding of the term incentive, all the items listed in the interview may not be called incentives, unless the term is given a broader definition. Hence, the option for the use of the term working conditions to accommodate the non-incentive factors was made.

The outcome of the interviews helped to form a comprehensive view of what aspects of the working conditions and goals are as discussed under conceptual framework of the study. Based on this initial interview and literature, the following working condition factors and goals are identified for consideration in the current study (Table 4.2):

**Table 4.2: List of working conditions factors and university goal areas identified at the preliminary interviews/discussion and literature review.**

	Working Conditions			University Goal Areas	
SN	Indicators		SN	Indicators	
1	Salaries and Fringe Benefit	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Basic pay and allowances</li> <li>2. Loans</li> <li>3. Pension scheme</li> </ol>	1	Teaching	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Student academic achievement</li> <li>2. Student achievement in other fields (e.g. sports)</li> <li>3. Students character development/discipline (as against cultism, examination malpractice, etc)</li> <li>4. Staff quality in terms of very high qualifications and ranks (e.g. Professorship)</li> </ol>
2	Career & Professional development	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Training, Education and Development</li> <li>2. Sabbatical</li> <li>3. Promotion</li> <li>4. Job Security</li> </ol>	2	Research and Publication	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Winning of research grants and awards</li> <li>2. Successful completion of researches</li> <li>3. Publication of research findings</li> <li>4. Publication of theoretical papers</li> </ol>

					(national and international)
3	Work environment	1. Work load 2. Collegiality/co-worker relationship 3. Power Supply 4. Transportation 5. Recreational facilities 6. Office space	3	Community/Public service	1. Board membership of other organizations 2. Consultancy services 3. Awards (e.g. Nobel Peace Prize)
4	Teaching Resources and Facilities	5. Information and communication technology 6. Library 7. Classroom 8. Mentorship	4	Corporate Based Indicators	1. University reputation 2. Student enrolment 3. University ranking 4. University-Community relations (e.g. through specific development programmes)
5	Governance and Leadership	1. Participatory decision-making 2. Management-Labour			

		relation 3. Leadership selection process			
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The number of participants in this pilot interview would have been higher if all the people approached were ready to spare the researcher some of their time for the interview. Some of the subjects approached complained of busy schedule and gave appointments they never kept. Some demanded for introductory letter of the researcher from her university. The number of universities used was limited to two so that it will be easy for the researcher to utilize the limited time available to her effectively to cover the two universities as the geographic locations of the universities in the country are such that the distances between them are quite long. Moreover, the intention of the preliminary interviews was to get some idea about the topic, and therefore, did not intend to use many universities. Another major difficulty experienced during the investigation was that most of the participants in the interview were very unwilling to provide their identity.

#### **4.7 Ethical Consideration**

Ethics in research has to do with moral principles and values influencing the way a research is conducted (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010). It is described by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009, p.183) as “the appropriateness of your behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of your work, or are affected by it”. Considering that the research involves human participation whose responses are required, there was need to consider some ethical issues. Issues concerned with “how” a research should be conducted seem to be of greater concern to a business and management researcher than concerns for “what” is being researched (Remenyi et al, 1998, p.229). This involves giving consideration to issue of anonymity and confidentiality of information. It also involves the researcher being accurate and honest with the participants in terms of collection of evidence, processing the evidence and the use of the findings while trying to gather information for the research (Remenyi et al, 1998; Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010). According to Denscombe (2010, p.7), the first core principle of research ethics is “no-one should suffer harm as a result of participation in the research”. In this regard, participants in the present research were informed that their identity would not be revealed and that any information obtained would be held in strict confidence and used only for academic purpose. Details of the study explaining its purpose and how their information would be

used were explained to them including the voluntary nature of their participation and their right to withdraw at any stage if they wanted. The participants, including the administrators that released the objective performance data were provided with consent forms. Inclusion of names in responses to the questionnaire was made optional. The anonymous nature of the instrument was an attempt not to undermine the security of participants.

The performance data provided were accompanied with consent forms duly signed by the administrative divisions of the various universities. Where figures provided were confusing, the researcher tried as much as possible to confirm some of them from the units that supplied the information including through email or phone calls and messages. However, in many instances poor/lack of internet connectivity and poor mobile networks hampered direct communication. Informed consents were received from the six universities with the consent forms signed by the administrative divisions. Samples of the self-completed questionnaire, university goal achievement questions, Participant Information Sheet, and Participant Consent Form are in appendices I, II, III and IV, respectively.

While analysing and interpreting the findings, care was taken as much as possible to avoid bias and unfair representation. Another ethical issue in research is plagiarism (Remenyi et al, 1998). The research took care of this. Though this is difficult to detect, serious attention was paid to minimize its level at the barest minimum. Secondary sources of information are acknowledged accordingly and appropriately referenced.

### **Summary of the Chapter**

Methodology has to do with an acceptable way a researcher undertakes to find out knowledge. It involves approaches and belief system guiding the inquirer. The two main research philosophies are ontology or assumptions about reality, and epistemology or what should be acceptable knowledge in a field of study (Guba, 1990; Babbie, 2004; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Objectivism is an ontological view that sees social entities as existing external to social actors concerned with their existence, while subjectivism is an ontological position that sees reality to be socially constructed so the need for researchers to go beyond the details of the situation to uncover the reality working behind them (Remenyi et al, 1998; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Positivism is an epistemological philosophy whose central goal is explanation and prediction, seeking nomothetic or generalizable knowledge. It is associated with quantitative research.

Interpretivism is another epistemological position that has its central goal as understanding; and is associated with qualitative research (Ozanne and Hudson, 1989; Robinson, 2011).

Pragmatism is a research philosophy that believes that objective phenomena and subjective meaning can be combined in the same research to produce valuable knowledge. That is, the importance of both the physical and social world is recognised by this school of thought, allowing for the use of both quantitative and qualitative paradigms in the same piece of research, or mixed methods (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Armitage and Keeble-Allen, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

The current research is based on the pragmatic paradigm. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected at different stages to explore the subject investigated.

Research Design is cross-sectional and the research strategy, a survey. Data collection methods include: preliminary interview, document review, and questionnaire containing quantitative and qualitative questions (Flanagan, 1954; de Vaus, 2001; Mitra and Chaudhuri, 2000; Wang, Hsieh and Huan, 2000; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013; Denscombe, 2010). The sample population is academics from six Nigerian universities comprising the federal, state, and private universities from the Northern and Southern part of the country. The universities were selected using stratified random sampling (Teddlie and Yu, 2007, cited in Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Denscombe, 2010; Schutt, 2011) and the subjects selected from departments/faculties that run courses that cut across the three university sectors. The questionnaire contained 28 questions developed out of the findings from the preliminary interviews, document review and literature review. To further increase the internal validity of the instrument, the developed instrument was discussed with experts before distribution to respondents. Also, multiple indicators were used as measure for the different aspects of working conditions investigated.

The data were analysed using narrative analysis of the preliminary interview and documents (Barry and Elmes, 1997 cited in Morrell, n.d; Bellanger, 2006; Grbich, 2007; Willig, 2014); thematic analysis of the qualitative aspect of the questionnaire on working conditions (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Maxwell, 2005; Braun and Clarke, 2006; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Grbich, 2007); and quantitative analysis of the structured aspects of the questionnaire on working conditions and checklist of questions for performance (Boone,

Jr and Boone, 2011; Brown, 2012; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). The quantitative techniques used include means, frequencies, percentages, bar charts, and chi-square statistical test of significance.

The outcome of the preliminary interviews showed that while incentive issues in the universities are varied, teaching resources and facilities were of great concern to the academics.

In consideration of ethics, the research instruments for data collection were made anonymous; any inclusion of name was made optional. Participant information sheet and consent forms were served the participants. Data presentation, analysis, and discussion are presented in the next chapter.



## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The main objective of this study is to explore the working conditions in Nigerian universities to help identify perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and university performance with a view to finding ways of improvement. Finding out what the academic staff feel about their work situation and what they regard as important in their jobs will help understanding of the situation in the universities. It will enable identification of factors for concentration of efforts by university management to enhance staff commitment and university performance. First, the research tried identifying the perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and university performance and their evolution. These were traced partly, through informal interviews/discussions as reported in section 4.6 and documentation analysis already reported in chapter two. This chapter deals with data presentation, analysis and discussion of findings from the full-scale survey using questionnaire. Findings from the questionnaire are presented in section 5.2.

#### **5.2 Findings from the Questionnaire Survey**

In order to put the findings into perspective, it is important to highlight the objectives of the research questionnaire:

- i. Ascertain academic staff perception of their working conditions
- ii. Investigate factors important for personal growth of academic staff and those that will make them remain in their job.
- iii. Identify other factors important to the academic staff in their job.
- iv. Investigate the performance of the universities under the current working condition (a separate instrument is used for this purpose).

Sections 1 of the questionnaire, containing information pertaining to the personal data of respondents and section 2, containing the questions on academic staff working conditions were structured. That is, the respondents were given lists of possible answers to choose from. However, section 3 contained open-ended questions.

The data analysis of the structured sections (1 and 2) of the questionnaire was quantitative in approach. It involved the use of numeric figures in the form of frequencies, percentages

and means using Excel Spread Sheet and Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software. The qualitative aspect was manually analysed. Descriptive statistics are incorporated in the analysis in order to find out the relative order and importance of the items. In carrying out the process, analysis was first conducted at the general level whereby the responses from all the participants in the survey are analysed as a single data set. This brings out the overall picture of the answers to specific questions. Thereafter, analysis is conducted based on university type or proprietorship, that is, federal, state and private. This is done in recognition of the fact that the different university types have their peculiarities and the assumption that these peculiarities could affect the way respondents from the different categories of university would respond to the same question(s).

### **5.2.1 Perception with Working Conditions**

#### **a. General Analysis (Quantitative)**

The analysis of the data at the general level was done with the whole participants totaling 248. Since there were 28 questionnaire items pertaining to working conditions to be scored by each respondent on a 10-point scale, the overall expressed satisfaction with working conditions was calculated by summing up all the scores by each respondent, dividing by 280 which is the maximum expected score for all the items and multiplying by 100 to find the percentage. This was found to be 51.42%.

In assessing the overall score of each university type on their academic staff opinion about their working conditions, the points scored by the respondents in each university type were summed up and divided by the expected maximum score of 280 and multiplied by 100 to find the percentage. The section starts by providing general information in Table 5.1 about the universities and respondents in the study. Test of significance is done based on gender and proprietorship using the chi-square statistics. Details of the statistics is shown in Appendix V. This involved categorising the academics' responses into poor (scores 1-5) and excellent (scores 6-10) categories for the variable satisfaction, and male and female for the variable gender; and federal, state, and private for the variable proprietorship. The results of the tests are presented in sections 5.2.1c. Brown (2011) and Boone Jr. and Boone (2012) had pointed out that both parametric and non-parametric statistics can be used for Likert scale data.

**(i) Personal Data/Characteristics of respondents**

In assessing the opinion of the academic staff about the working conditions in their various universities, average score of 5.5 (equivalent to 55% as there were 10 scale points) is used as the baseline to judge if a satisfaction score is in the positive side towards excellent satisfaction direction or negative towards the poor satisfaction side.

**Table 5.1 Frequency Table on Respondents Background**

	<b>FU N = 89</b>	<b>SU N = 82</b>	<b>PU N = 77</b>	<b>TOTAL N = 248</b>
<b>SEX</b>				
Male	61 (68.5)	61 (74.4)	54 (70.1)	176 (71.0)
Female	28 (31.5)	21 (25.6)	23 (29.9)	72 (29.0)
<b>AGE (YRS)</b>				
20-29	-	-	6 (7.8)	6(7.8)
30-39	18 (20.2)	11 (13.4)	17 (22.1)	46(18.5)
40-49	39 (43.8)	43 (52.4)	29 (37.7)	111(44.8)
50-59	21 (23.6)	23 (28.0)	14 (18.2)	58 (23.4)
60-69	11 (12.4)	5 (46.1)	10 (13.0)	26 (10.5)
70 and Above	-	-	1 (2.2)	1(0.4)
<b>EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION</b>				
Bachelor Degree	5(5.6)	2(2.4)	4(5.2)	11(4.4)
Masters Degree	35 (39.3)	19 (23.2)	49 (63.6)	103(41.5)
Doctorate Degree	49 (55.1)	61 (74.4)	24 (31.2)	134 (54.0)

RANK				
Grad Asst – Lect II	33 (37.1)	12 (14.6)	43 (55.8)	88 (35.5)
Lect I – Snr Lect	42 (47.2)	53 (64.6)	29 (37.7)	124 (50.0)
Assoc Prof – Prof	24 (27.0)	17 (20.7)	5 (6.5)	36 (14.5)

FU, Federal University; SU, State University; PU, Private University; (), Percentage; N, Number of respondents.

The analysis of the questionnaire shows, as revealed in Table 5.1, that out of a total of 248 respondents that participated in the survey, 176 (71.0%) were males and 72 (29.0%) were females. For age distribution, majority of the respondent belong to the age range of 40-49 years which accounts for 44.8% of the respondents. This is followed by the age range of 50-59 which makes up 23.4% of the respondents and the least being the range 70 and above that represents only 0.4% of the respondents.

In terms of educational qualification, 54.0% of the respondents hold Doctorate degree, 41.5% hold Master degree while 4.4% hold Bachelor degree. That majority of the respondents hold doctorate degree is not surprising as the university regulatory body is trying to emphasize PhD qualification as crucial in maintaining membership of the lecturing profession in Nigerian universities. When grouped according to rank, most of the respondents are within the Lecturer 1 – Senior Lecturer cadre which made up 50.0% of those that participated in the survey, with 35.5% and 14.5% accounted for by Graduate Assistants – Lecturer II and Associate Professors – Professor cadres, respectively.

From the general information detailed above, different categories of academic staff were involved in the survey. This is important as opinions of the different categories may differ, thereby, making it possible to have balanced views that help in increasing the credibility of the study.

Out of the total of 248 respondents that participated in the survey, 89 (35.9%) came from the federal universities, 82 (33.1%) came from the state universities, while 77 (31.0%) came from the private universities.

**Table 5.2: General analysis: overall expressed level of satisfaction with working conditions and factors.**

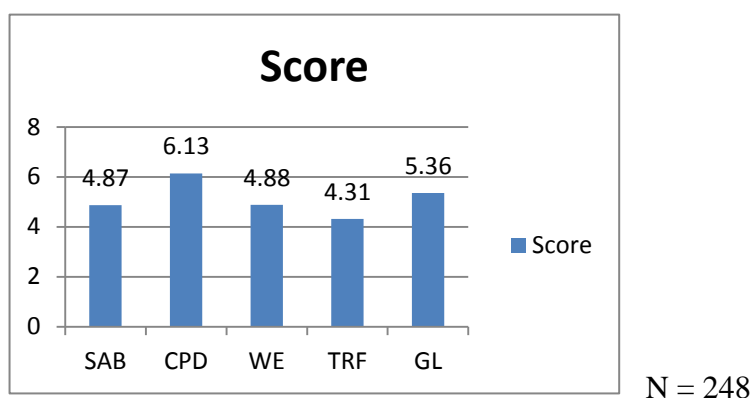
<b>Factor</b>	<b>All N = 248</b>	<b>Federal n = 89</b>	<b>State n = 82</b>	<b>Private n = 77</b>
Overall Satisfaction (%)	51.42	50.02	46.31	58.47
Salary and Fringe Benefits (SAB)	4.85 (48.47%)	4.81	3.64	6.17
Career and Professional Development (CPD)	6.13 (61.27%)	5.91	5.75	6.78
Work Environment (WE)	4.88 (48.78%)	4.76	4.27	5.66
Teaching Resources and Facilities (TRF)	4.31 (43.08%)	3.99	3.73	5.30
Governance and Leadership (GL)	5.36 (53.64%)	5.39	5.17	5.54

Note: Figures are approximated. N = Total Sample size; n = Sample size for university type

From Table 5.2, the general overall expressed satisfaction with working conditions for all the participants (N = 248) is 51.42% . The value is at a total mean overall satisfaction score of 143.97, and standard deviation of 39.96. (appendix v), that is a grand mean of 5.14 . With the information on mean, variance and standard deviation, comparison can be made between the findings from this study current study and a similar study elsewhere. The mean figure indicates a low or negative satisfaction because it is below the baseline of 55% used as criteria in this research for judging poor and excellent satisfaction. On factor basis, the highest overall score of 61.27% is for CPD which is followed by GL (53.64%),

then WE (48.78%), SAB (48.47%) and lastly, TRF (43.08%). Hence, for the entire sample of 248 participants, the academics overall satisfaction with their working conditions is negative/poor, with only career and professional development factor recording the highest and only positive/excellent score among the factors studied. This seems to suggest that, on a general basis, the universities are paying greater attention in the development needs of the academics. However, the poor infrastructural and resource facilities (e.g. Okebukola, 2005, 2006, 2010; Ofoegbu and Nwadiani, 2006; Akpotu and Akpochofo, 2009) coupled with the constant dispute and stress about pay, especially salaries in the public sector universities (e.g. Piwuna, 2006; Ofoegbu and Nwadiani, 2006; ASUU, 2009) may have impacted on the general negative/poor overall level of satisfaction obtained in the present study.

**Figure 5.1: General Rating of Factors of Working Conditions by All Respondents**



**Table 5.3: Demographic variables and Overall Satisfaction Based on the entire responses and University Ownership**

Variable		Overall Satisfaction Level (%)			
Gender		All	Federal	State	Private
	Male	51.82	49.61	48.17	58.30
	Female	50.43	50.93	41.54	58.87
Age					
	20-29	57.32	-	-	57.32
	N = 6				

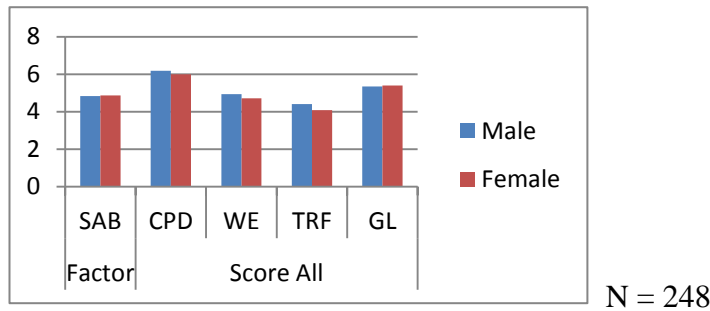
	30-39 N = 46	50.35	49.23	47.27	54.52
	40-49 (N = 111)	49.43	49.49	45.11	55.78
	50-59 (N = 58)	53.83	51.53	47.7	67.35
	60-69 (N = 26)	54.33	50.36	48.07	61.82
	70 and Above (N = 1)	69.64	-	-	69.64
Educational Qualification		All	Federal	State	Private
	Bachelor (N = 11)	53.8	52.64	48.21	58.04
	Masters (N = 103)	51.6	48.96	45.73	55.77
	Doctorate (N = 134)	51.08	50.52	46.42	64.06
Rank		All	Federal	State	Private
	G/Asst-Lec.II (N = 88)	52.32	49.76	46.55	55.89

	Lec.I-Snr. Lec (N = 124)	49.79	49.40	44.3	60.39
	Assoc. Prof-Prof. (N = 36)	54.82	52.53	52.39	69.5

Table 5.3 describes the distribution pattern of overall job satisfaction according to gender, age, educational qualification and rank for the entire sample and in the three categories of university ownership studied. In terms of gender for the entire sample, males have the highest overall satisfaction rating of 51.82% than females that have 50.43%. However, the overall mean satisfaction ratings of male and female academics are not significantly different ( $t\text{-cal} = 1.53, p < 0.05$ ). This fails to collaborate Ghafoor's result in Pakistan but contrary to the finding of Egbule (2003) that female lecturers in Nigerian universities had higher mean satisfaction rating than male lecturers, and the general belief that women tend to have higher job satisfaction than men (e.g. Oshagbemi, 1997; Srivastava and Chabra, 2012). On proprietorship level, female academics seem to have slightly higher level of overall rating of their satisfaction than their male counterparts in the federal and private universities while the reverse is the case in the state university. As will be seen in the chi-square ( $X^2$ ) test of some of the items or work factors in the questionnaire, many of them did not show any significant gender differences. For instance, with respect to SAB, there was no significant gender satisfaction difference for salary and access to loan, but there was significant gender satisfaction difference for pension scheme. In the case of CPD, no significant gender difference in satisfaction was found for opportunity for professional development, job security and promotion process.



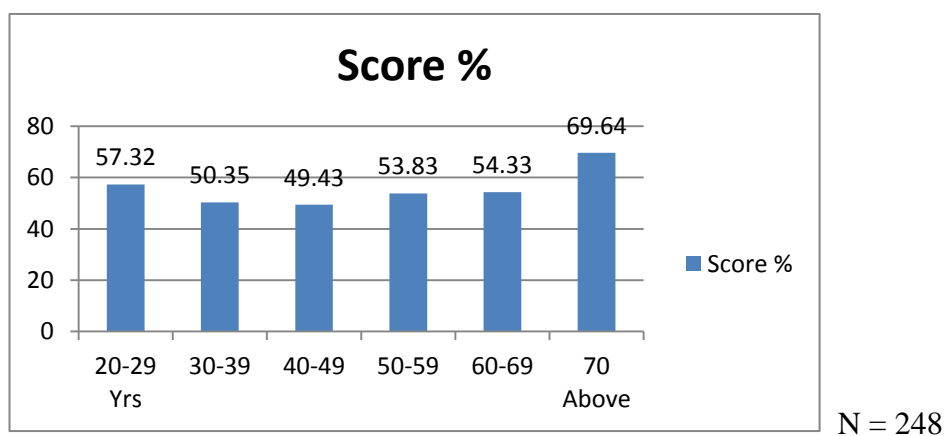
**Figure 5.2: General Gender Rating of Factors of Working Conditions**



Therefore, in the selected universities in Nigeria and contrary to Egbule's finding, the present study seems to suggest that in general, male academics were yet to have their self-actualization needs satisfied just as their female counterparts. Probably, the female academics in Nigeria are gradually placing greater emphasis on work values than before.

In terms of general age distribution pattern of overall level of job satisfaction with working conditions, as shown in Table 5.3 column 3 and figure 5.3, there seems to be evidence of the U-shape age-satisfaction pattern described by Clark, Oswald and Warr (1996) and in part, that of Kacmar and Ferris (1989). The pattern was explained in terms of high expectations on the job that are unmet at the early stage of the work life that became more realistic with maturity and experience on the job. In the present study, youngest age group records overall satisfaction level of 57.32%. This drops with age, first to 50.35% and then 49.43% before increasing to the maximum of 69.64% at the age of 70 years and above.

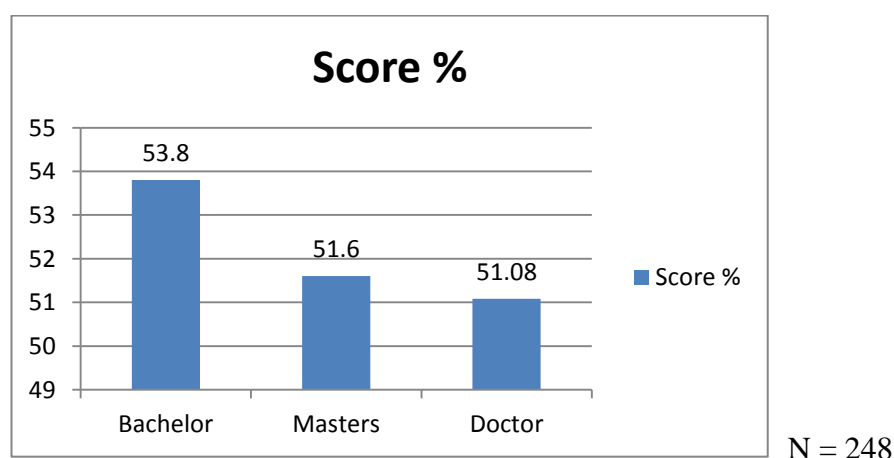
**Figure 5.3: General Overall Satisfaction with Working Conditions according to Age**



General analysis relating to educational qualification shows that academics with the lowest qualification, Bachelor degree, have the highest overall rating of satisfaction with

their working conditions, with a mean rating of 53.8% (Figure 5.4). This is followed by academics with Master degree who recorded 51.6% overall satisfaction and, lastly, those with Doctorate degree whose overall satisfaction is slightly lower, 51.08%. That is, none of the qualification categories met positive/excellent satisfaction. That the lowest educational qualification has the highest mean satisfaction is supported by the findings of Gardner and Oswald (2002). Disenchantments about salary, resources and facilities may have contributed to the lower satisfaction experienced by academics with higher qualification who may regard the reward from their work inadequate or not commensurate to the overall skills acquired. Also, inadequate resources and facilities which characterize most Nigerian universities (e.g. Moja, 2000; Saint, Harnett and Strasser, 2003; Ofoegbu and Nwadiani, 2006; Erinosh, 2008; Okecha, 2008; Akpotu and Akpochofo, 2009; Ajadi, 2010a) could prevent full application of these skills, thereby, preventing them from achieving excellence or the high aspiration they set for themselves. For instance, Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) noted that both public and private university academic staff experience problem of poor facilities while Ajadi (2010a) noted that facilities for staff development and research opportunities are limited in the private universities. This could be frustrating and negatively affect the satisfaction of higher qualification staff that are believed to work harder than lower qualification staff (Gardner and Oswald, 2002). Again, report of the committee on brain drain in Nigerian universities 1982/3-1992/93 also found that 80% of academics that emigrated as a result of the poor situations in the universities had PhD degrees (NUC, 1994).

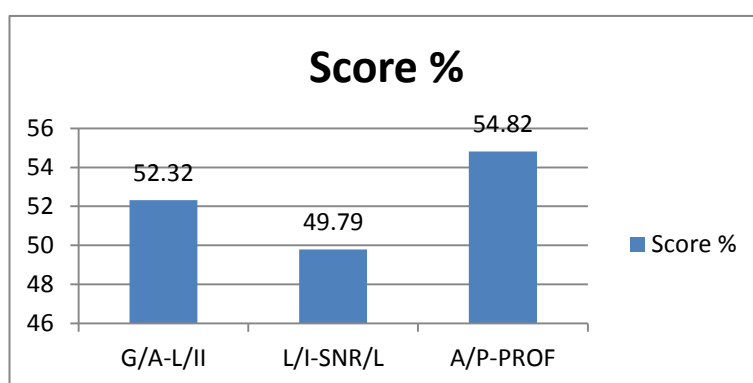
**Figure 5.4: General (N = 248) Overall Level of Satisfaction with Working Conditions according to Educational Qualification**



When the entire sample is considered in terms of rank, for the three rank grouping as shown in Table 5.3 and figure 5.5, overall level of satisfaction of the lowest rank (Graduate Assistant –Lecturer II) is 52.32%, this drops to 49.79% for the intermediate

rank group (Lecturer I-Senior Lecturer) and increased again to the highest satisfaction level of 54.82% for the highest rank group, Associate Professors – Professors. Again, none of the groups reached the excellent satisfaction criteria. This notwithstanding, that professorial rank group has the highest overall satisfaction is expected. This category of lecturers seems to be almost reaching the pinnacle of their career with associated experiences and benefits of career progression. The intermediate rank group, Lecturer I-Senior Lecturer, seem to be still having a lot of struggles, trying to overcome various obstacles that are likely impediments to reaching the highest rank, this may cause lower satisfaction. Extending this to extant literature, the finding seem to partially support those of Oshagbemi (1997) who observed that academics on higher rank are generally more satisfied on their job and Ronen (1978) who confirmed that “change in job satisfaction with job seniority resembles a “U-shaped” curve”.

**Figure 5.5 General Overall Level of Satisfaction with Working Conditions according to Rank (N = 248)**



#### **b. Analysis based on individual university ownership/proprietorship (Quantitative data)**

This part of the analysis of the structured section of the questionnaire takes into consideration the pattern of responses from the individual university sector/proprietorship. That is, the analysis is done based on whether the university is funded by the federal government, state government, or by private individuals/organizations. At this level of analysis, while overall satisfaction with working conditions and satisfaction with facets of working conditions are analysed based on university proprietorship (federal, state and private) and individual university level (e.g. Federal university A, Federal university B; State university A, State university B; Private university A, Private university B; Table 5.4), analysis based on demographic variables is done based only on ownership/proprietorship bases. When the six universities used in the study are analysed

in isolation, demographic consideration will only be on gender because some of the variable categories are too small in number in some cases to make a meaningful judgment (see Tables 5.2, 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5).

### **Federal University (quantitative data)**

When it comes to the level of university ownership, Table 5.2 shows that the mean overall satisfaction for all the respondents in the federal university ( $n = 89$ ) is 50.02% which is negative or poor by the criteria used for judgment in the study. Federal university A (FA) accounts for 49.43% of this satisfaction figure while 50.41% is the overall satisfaction figure for Federal University B (FB). Hence, respondents from both universities show poor satisfaction with their working conditions. In terms of facets, the highest score in FA is for CPD (5.83) and its lowest is TRF (3.83). For FB, CPD also has the highest score (5.96) while TRF is also lowest (4.09). This shows that the federal universities are paying great attention to CPD of the academic staff which is the only satisfaction score towards excellent satisfaction. Analysis based on gender (Table 5.5) for the two federal universities individually, shows that in FA, overall satisfaction with working conditions is poor for both male and female academics, but male academics rated their overall satisfaction higher (51.88%) than their female colleagues (46.52%). In FB, overall satisfaction is high among female academics with a score of 56.82% whereas the male academics have poor overall satisfaction (48.88%).

In Table 5.3, none of the age groups in the entire Federal university sample has positive satisfaction. However, the age group 50-59 years has the highest satisfaction figure (51.53%), followed by the group 60-69 (50.36%). The youngest age group in this university category, 30-39 years, has the lowest overall satisfaction of 49.23% while the second to the lowest overall satisfaction of 49.49% is recorded for the group 40-49 years.

Response analysis based on educational qualification (Table 5.3) shows that, whereas all the educational levels considered show poor overall satisfaction, the lowest qualification, the bachelor degree, has the highest score of 52.64%. This is followed by the doctorate degree holders with an overall score of 50.52%. The least is Master degree holders that scored 48.96%. However, when facets are taken into consideration, all the categories show high satisfaction for career and professional development with the highest mean score of 6.7 coming from the lowest qualification, bachelor degree category. Governance and leadership is also rated highly by the lowest qualification with a mean score of 5.89. Teaching resources and facilities recorded the poorest mean factor scores for all the

categories of educational qualification, with the Master degree holders rating it the lowest, 3.96.

Further grouping based on rank shows that the highest job level class, Associate Professors to Professors, has the highest but poor overall satisfaction with working conditions (52.53%) in the federal university. This is followed by the lowest rank class, Graduate Assistant to Lecturer II with overall score of 50.0% and, the intermediate class, Lecturer I to Senior Lecturer that has the least overall satisfaction score of 49.25%.

### **State University (quantitative data)**

In the state university category, as shown in Table 5.2, the mean overall satisfaction of all respondents (n = 82) is 46.31%. Though, overall satisfaction is poor in this case, facets consideration shows that overall mean score for the entire respondents is highest and on the excellent side of the satisfaction scale for CPD (5.75). While the overall satisfaction with TRF is low for the entire sample in the state university, with a score of 3.73, the lowest mean factor satisfaction score in the case of the state universities is for SAB (3.64).

Table 5.4 shows that at the individual state university level of analysis, respondents from state university A (SA, n = 48) are 45.60% overall satisfied with their working conditions and those from SB (n = 34) are 47.30% overall satisfied. When facets are considered, CPD has the highest score of 5.86 and 5.59 for SA and SB respectively. The lowest factor score in SA is salary and fringe benefits with a mean score of 3.28, though the score for teaching resources and facilities is equally poor (3.67). For SB, the lowest factor score is teaching resources and facilities (3.81) while salary and fringe benefits with a mean score of 4.15 (Table 5.4) is second to the lowest.

In terms of gender, Table 5.5 shows that in SA, both male and female academics show poor overall satisfaction with their working conditions; but the male lecturers rated their satisfaction higher (48.34%) than the female lecturers (36.42%). In SB, while both gender show poor overall satisfaction with working conditions, male lecturers again have higher rating (48.23%) than their female colleagues that have 45.07%.

In Table 5.3, the lowest age group (30-39 years) has an overall satisfaction of 47.27% in the state university category. This drops to 45.11% for the next age group 40-49 years, rose again to 47.7% for the next age group, 50-59 years, and reached the final and highest job overall satisfaction score of 48.07% for the highest age group, 60-69 years. None has excellent satisfaction with their overall working conditions.

Table 5.3 also shows overall satisfaction score based on educational qualification for the entire academics in the state university sample. The lowest category here, the Bachelor degree holders, has the highest overall satisfaction score with working conditions, scoring 48.21%. This is followed by the apex qualification, doctorate level, with 46.42%. The intermediate level, Master degree, scored 45.73% overall satisfaction. However, while CPD has the highest factor satisfaction scores for Master and Doctorate degree holders, 5.51 and 5.58 respectively; SAB has the highest factor score for academics with the lowest degree, Bachelor degree, having a score of 5.5. While the lowest factor satisfaction score for Bachelor and Master Degrees is 3.75 for TRF, the lowest for Doctorate degree is SAB with a score of 3.49.

In terms of rank, the professorial category has the highest overall satisfaction of 52.39%, followed by the lowest level, Graduate Assistant to Lecturer II that has a score of 46.55%. The intermediate level, Lecturer I to Senior Lecturer has the lowest overall satisfaction score of 44.3%. CPD has the highest facet score for the three categories of rank.

#### **Private University (quantitative data)**

For the private university proprietorship, Tables 5.2 and 5.4 indicate that the overall satisfaction with working conditions for the entire sample ( $n = 77$ ) is 58.47% which is in the excellent side of the satisfaction scale by the criteria of this study. Looking at the mean score for the facets of working conditions for the entire private university sample, it is observed that the scores for four out of all the five factors considered are also on the positive side towards excellent satisfaction except TRF. The factor with the highest score is CPD which has a mean score of 6.78, whereas the factor that has the lowest score is TRF with a mean score of 5.30. The finding is contrary to earlier work by Egbule (2003) that found private university lecturers in Nigeria still dissatisfied with pay/salary, job security and staff development programmes.

In terms of the constituent universities in this case, the first private university (PA) has an overall excellent satisfaction score of 61.51%, while PB has an overall poor satisfaction score of 53.95%. Facet consideration shows that while CPD has the highest and excellent score in the two universities with PA scoring 7.33 and PB scoring 5.96, TRF has the poorest mean score in both universities with PA recording 5.38 and PB scoring 5.17. The rest of the PA facet scores are on the positive or excellent side of the satisfaction scale while the rest of PB facet scores are on the negative or poor side. This seems to imply that

PA contributed heavily to the high overall satisfaction scores obtained for the entire private university sample.

Analysis based on gender at university ownership level for the entire sample from the private universities is shown in column six of Table 5.3. It is observed that the overall satisfaction for females in the private university category is slightly higher (58.87%), than their male counterparts that have an overall satisfaction rating of 58.30%. On the constituent university level, while both male and female academics in PA have excellent overall satisfaction with their working conditions, the male figure is higher (62.38%) than the female figure (59.05%). On the other hand, in PB, only the female academics have overall satisfaction score on the excellent side with a satisfaction figure of 58.67%, while the males score is on the poor side, with a figure of 51.36%.

Result of analysis based on age (Table 5.3) shows that all the six age groupings used in the study are present in private university sample. Whereas the highest age group, 70 years and above has the highest overall satisfaction rating of 69.64%, followed by the group 50-59 years with 67.35% overall satisfaction score with working conditions, the least overall satisfaction score of 54.52% is recorded against the age group 30-39 years which is the group next to the youngest age group 20-29 years that has an overall satisfaction score of 57.32%. For all the groupings, while CPD has the highest facet score, TRF has the lowest score.

Analysis based on educational qualification in the private university as indicated in Table 5.3 shows that, while all the three educational qualification groups have excellent overall satisfaction, the highest qualification group, Doctorate degree, have the highest score of 64.06%, followed by the least qualification category, Bachelor degree which has 58.04%. Master degree holders have the least overall satisfaction score of 55.77%. Again, TRF has the lowest factor score for all the categories. Career and professional development has the highest score for Master and Doctorate degree holders (6.56 and 7.24, respectively) while SAB has the highest factor score for Bachelor degree holders (6.67).

Result of analysis based on rank (Table 5.3) shows that for private university, the overall satisfaction of the Associate Professors to Professors is highest (69.5%) compared to others among the three groupings used in the study. This is followed by Lecturer I to Senior Lecturer group with a high score of 60.39% overall satisfaction, the least being for the Graduate Assistant to Lecturer II category that has 55.89% overall satisfaction. For all the groups again, CPD has the highest facet score while TRF has the lowest facet score.

**Table 5.4 Overall Expressed Level of Satisfaction with Working Conditions and Facet Scores by Academic Staff According to University Proprietorship/Ownership and individual Universities.**

<b>University Type</b>	<b>Sample Size (N)</b>		<b>Overall Satisfaction Level (%)</b>	<b>SAB</b>	<b>CPD</b>	<b>WE</b>	<b>TRF</b>	<b>GL</b>
Federal	<b>All</b>	89	50.02	4.82	5.91	4.76	3.99	5.39
	<b>FA</b>	35	49.43	4.7	5.83	4.62	3.83	5.52
	<b>FB</b>	54	50.41	4.88	5.96	4.85	4.09	5.3
State	<b>All</b>	82	46.31	3.64	5.75	4.27	3.73	5.17
	<b>SA</b>	48	45.60	3.28	5.86	4.16	3.67	5.1
	<b>SB</b>	34	47.30	4.15	5.59	4.44	3.81	5.28
Private	<b>All</b>	77	58.47	6.17	6.78	5.66	5.30	5.54
	<b>PA</b>	46	61.51	6.72	7.33	5.92	5.38	5.76
	<b>PB</b>	31	53.95	5.35	5.96	5.27	5.17	5.22
<b>General</b>		<b>248</b>	<b>51.42*</b>					

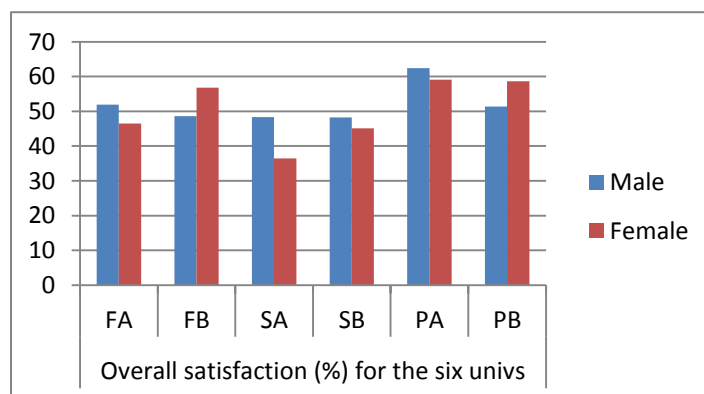
\* Figure represents General mean of the summation of the individual universities overall satisfaction measures with working conditions.



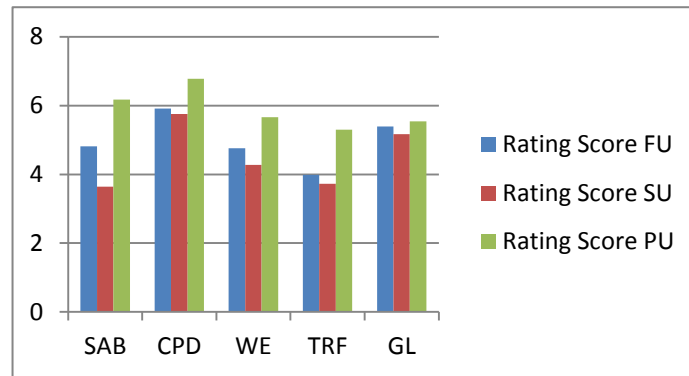
**Table 5.5: Gender overall satisfaction (%) with working conditions for the six individual universities**

University	Male Score (%)	Female Score (%)
FA	51.88	46.52
FB	48.58	56.82
SA	48.34	36.42
SB	48.23	45.07
PA	62.38	59.05
PB	51.36	58.67

**Figure 5.6: Gender overall satisfaction with working conditions for the six individual universities**

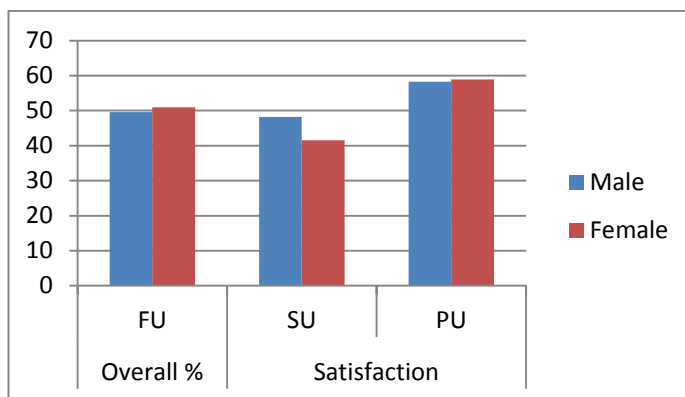


**Figure 5.7: Mean Factor Rating according to University Ownership**



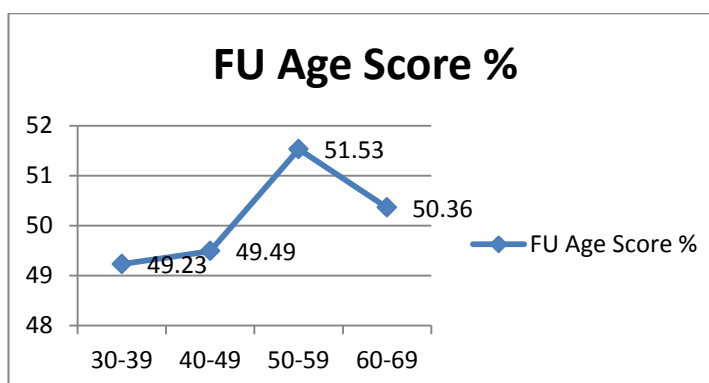
FU – federal university (N = 89); SU – state university (N = 82); PU – private university (77).

**Figure 5.8 Gender Overall Satisfaction in the Three University Ownerships**

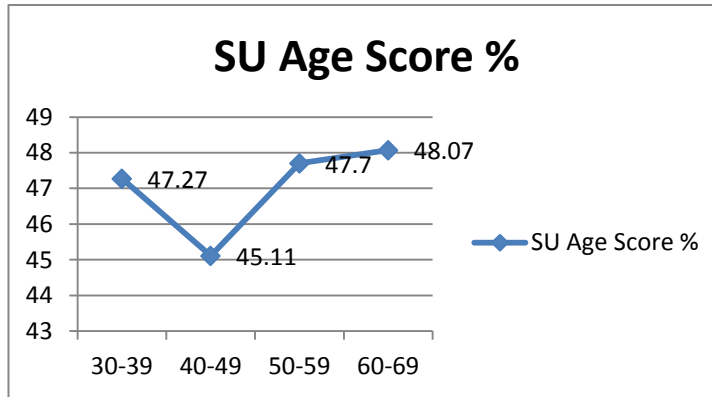


FU = Federal University; SU = State University; PU = Private University

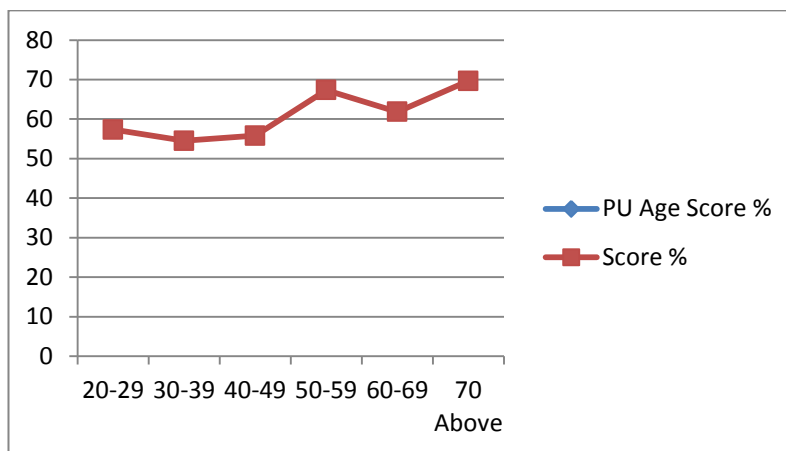
**Figure 5.9: Overall Satisfaction according to Age in Federal Universities**



**Figure 5.10: Overall Satisfaction according to Age in State Universities**



**Figure 5.11: Overall Satisfaction according to Age in Private Universities**



**(c). Test of Significant Differences in Satisfaction based on Gender and Proprietorship with respect to some identified Factors in Section 2 of the Questionnaire using Chi-square.**

In order to test if there were significant differences in the satisfaction of the male and female academics, as well as academics from the federal, state, and private universities with respect to some items in the questionnaire, the chi-square ( $X^2$ ) statistics is used. To do this, the scores were grouped into poor (scores 1-5) and excellent (6-10). The items tested were salary, access to loan, pension scheme, support for professional development, job security, promotion processes, workload, access to internet and computers facilities, participation in leadership selection, and governance and leadership. The null hypotheses ( $H_0$ ) for the tests state that there is no significant satisfaction difference in the responses of the demographic categories with the identified factors (i.e., the distribution of responses is independent of the categories). The alternate hypotheses ( $H_1$ ) state that there is significant difference in satisfaction between the demographic categories (i.e., the distribution of the

responses are dependent on gender and proprietorship). For example, with respect to salary and gender responses:

*Ho*: There is no significant difference between the satisfaction of male and female academics with respect to salary.

*H1*: There is a significant difference between the satisfaction of male and female academics with respect to salary.

$$X^2 \text{ formula} = \sum (F_o - F_e)^2 / F_e,$$

Where  $F_o$  = observed frequency,  $F_e$  = expected frequency.

$$F_e = F_i F_j / n,$$

Where  $F_i$  = frequency total for the row (row total);  $F_j$  = frequency total for the column (column total);  $n$  = number of individuals in the sample;  $i$  = row,  $j$  = column.

For this study, Degree of Freedom ( $df$ ) = (Row-1)(Column-1) = (2-1)(2-1) = 1 x 1 = 1, where  $R$  = number of rows,  $C$  = number of columns (Gravetter and Wallnau, 1996, pp.564-565).

With  $df = 1$ ,  $p = .05$ , the critical value for chi-square in the  $X^2$  table is **3.841**. (Details of the calculations of the following chi-square tests are seen in Appendix V).

**Table 5.6 Two-way Frequency Table and Chi-Square ( $X^2$ )**

**Satisfaction with salary and gender**

Sex	Satisfaction with salary		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Male	(a) 77	(c) 99	<b>176</b>
Female	(b) 32	(d) 40	<b>72</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>139</b>	<b>248</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.01$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .05$

Since the calculated  $X^2$  (0.01) is less than table  $X^2$  (3.84) in table 5.6, the result is not significant, so *Ho* is accepted. Therefore, in this study with  $X^2(1, N = 248) = 0.01$ ,  $P = .05$ , there is no significant difference between the satisfaction of male and female academics with salary. Consequently, it is concluded that in this study, satisfaction with salary is independent of gender. That is, more males than females did not find their satisfaction with salary as excellent.

However, satisfaction with salary on proprietorship level (Appendix V, Tables a – c) was found to be significantly different between the federal and state university academics,  $X^2(1, N = 171) = 9.9, p = .05$ ; as well as between the state and private university academics,  $X^2(1, N = 159) = 30.18, p = .05$ ; but not significantly different between the federal and private university academics,  $X^2(1, N = 166) = 2.13, p = .05$ .

**Table 5.7 Two-way Frequency and Table Chi-Square ( $X^2$ )**

**Satisfaction with access to loan and gender**

Sex		Satisfaction with access to loan		Total
	0 (Missing)	Poor	Excellent	
Male	2	(a) 115	(c) 59	<b>176</b>
Female	2	(b) 49	(d) 21	<b>72</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>248</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.36$ ; df = 1; p = .05

In this study, no significant difference was found in gender satisfaction with access to loan,  $X^2(1, N = 248) = 0.36, P = .05$ . On proprietorship basis, no difference was also found between the federal and state academics,  $X^2(1, N = 171) = 0.48, p = .05$ ; but significant differences were found between the federal and private university academics,  $X^2(1, N = 166) = 2.13, p = .05$ , as well as between the state and private university academics,  $X^2(1, N = 159) = 30.18, p = .05$ .

**Table 5.8 Two-way Frequency and Table Chi-Square ( $X^2$ )**

**Satisfaction with Pension scheme and gender**

Sex		Pension scheme		Total
	0	Poor	Excellent	
Male	3	(a) 117	(c) 56	<b>176</b>
Female	2	(b) 39	(d) 31	<b>72</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>156</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>248</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 88.25$ ; df = 1; p = .05

This study found a very significant difference in the satisfaction between the male and female academics in Nigeria with regard to pension scheme,  $X^2(1, N = 248) = 88.25, p = .05$ . There were also significant differences between the satisfactions of the academics from the federal and state universities, federal and private universities, and state and private universities with this factor. These were with test results of  $X^2(1, N = 171) = 9.9, p = .05$ ;  $X^2(1, N = 166) = 28.52, p = .05$ ; and  $X^2(1, N = 159) = 59.84, p = .05$ , respectively.

The study did not find any significant gender difference in satisfaction with opportunity for professional development,  $X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.3, p = .05$ ; job security,  $X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.02, p = .05$ ; promotion processes,  $X^2 (1, N = 248) = 2.34, p = .05$ ; workload,  $X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.55, p = .05$ ; access to computer and internet facilities,  $X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.47, p = .05$ ; participatory leadership selection,  $X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.00, p = .05$ ; and governance and leadership,  $X^2 (1, N = 248) = 1.51, p = .05$  (Appendix V).

Tables 5.9 (a) – (c) show the chi-square results for satisfaction with opportunity for professional development based on proprietorship. Significant differences were found between academics in the federal versus state universities, federal versus private universities, and state versus private universities.

**Table 5.9 (a) Contingency Table and Chi-square result**

**Satisfaction with support for Professional Development and Proprietorship: Federal and State**

Proprietorship	Support for professional Development		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 73	(a) 16	89
State (SU)	(b) 55	(b) 27	82
<b>Total</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 5.06$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .05$

**Table 5.9 (b) Contingency table and Chi-square result**

**Satisfaction with support for Professional Development and Proprietorship: federal and private**

Proprietorship	Support for professional Development		Total
	Poor Satisfaction	Excellent Satisfaction	
Federal (FU)	(a) 73	(c) 16	89
Private(PU)	(b) 38	(d) 39	77
<b>Total</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 19.89$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .05$

**Table 5.9 (c) Contingency table and Chi-square result****Satisfaction with support for Professional Development and Proprietorship: State and Private**

<b>Proprietorship</b>	<b>Support for professional Development</b>		<b>Total</b>
	Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	(a) 55	(c) 27	82
Private (PU)	(b) 38	(d) 39	77
<b>Total</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>159</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 5.14$ ; df = 1; p = .05

For the factor job security, no proprietorship differences were found at the three levels of combination, as shown in Tables 5.10 (a) – (c) below:

**Table 5.10 (a) Contingency table and Chi-square result****Satisfaction with Job Security and Proprietorship: Federal and State**

<b>Proprietorship</b>	<b>Job Security</b>		<b>Total</b>
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 38	(c) 51	<b>89</b>
State (SU)	(b) 35	(d) 47	<b>82</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>98</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.00$ ; df = 1; p = .05

**Table 5.10 (b) Contingency table and Chi-square result****Satisfaction with Job Security and Proprietorship: Federal and Private**

<b>Proprietorship</b>	<b>Job Security</b>		<b>Total</b>
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 38	(c) 51	<b>89</b>
Private (PU)	(b) 25	(d) 52	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 1.83$ ; df = 1; p = .05

**Table 5.10 (c) Contingency table and Chi-square result****Satisfaction with Job Security and Proprietorship: State and Private**

Proprietorship	Job Security		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	(a)35	(c) 47	<b>82</b>
Private (PU)	(b) 25	(d) 52	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>159</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 1.76$ ; df = 1; p = .05

The non-significant results found at all the levels may suggest that, unlike reviewed in literature (Adekola, 2012), all the university sectors including the private universities are paying greater attention to strict retrenchment procedures in hiring of their staff.

Results of significant chi-square test based on satisfaction with promotional processes and proprietorship is shown in Table 5.11(a) - (c). While there is no significant difference found between the federal and state universities, the results were significant for the federal versus private universities, and state versus private universities. From the result, it means that more private university academic staff than those of federal and state universities see their promotional processes as excellent.

**Table 5.11 (a). Contingency table and Chi-square result****Satisfaction with Promotion Process and Proprietorship: Federal and State**

Proprietorship		Promotional Process		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	0	(a) 46	(c) 43	<b>89</b>
State (SU)	1	(b) 40	(d) 41	<b>82</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.09$ ; df = 1; p = .05



**Table 5.11 (b). Contingency table and Chi-square result****Satisfaction with Promotional Process and Proprietorship: Federal and Private**

Proprietorship	Promotional Process		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 46	(c) 43	<b>89</b>
Private (PU)	(b) 18	(d) 59	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 13.97$ ; df = 1; p = .05

**Table 5.11 (c). Contingency table and Chi-square result****Satisfaction with Promotional Process and Proprietorship: State and Private**

Proprietorship		Promotion Process		Total
	0	Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	1	(a) 40	(c) 41	<b>82</b>
Private (PU)	0	(b) 18	(d) 59	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>159</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 11.5$ ; df = 1; p = .05

Satisfaction with access to computer and internet based on proprietorship is presented in Tables 5.12 (a) – (c) below:

**Table 5.12 (a) Contingency table and Chi-square result****Satisfaction with Access to Computer and internet facilities and Proprietorship: Federal and State**

Proprietorship	Access to Computer and Internet Facilities		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 62	(c) 27	<b>89</b>
State (SU)	(b) 70	(d) 12	<b>82</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>132</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 5.97$ ; df = 1; p = .05

**Table 5.12 (b) Contingency table and Chi-square result**

**Satisfaction with Access to Computer and internet facilities and Proprietorship:  
Federal and Private**

Proprietorship	Access to Computer and Internet Facilities		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 62	(c) 27	<b>89</b>
Private (PU)	(b) 50	(d) 27	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.41$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .05$

**Table 5.12 (c) Contingency table and Chi-square result**

**Satisfaction with Access to Computer and internet facilities and Proprietorship:  
State and Private**

Proprietorship	Access to Computer and Internet Facilities		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	(a) 70	(c) 12	<b>82</b>
Private (PU)	(b) 50	(d) 27	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>159</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 8.96$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .05$

From the results shown in the tables, satisfaction with access to computer and internet facilities for the federal versus state was significant,  $X^2 (1, N = 171) = 8.96$ ,  $p = .05$ , showing that more academics in the state universities than those in the federal perceive their access to these facilities as poor (Table 5.12a). On the other hand, the federal versus private universities (Table 5.12b), the result is not significant. This means, more federal university academics than those from the private universities do not find their satisfaction with access to computer and internet as poor.

### **5.2.2. Findings from the Thematic Analysis of the Qualitative Section of the Questionnaire.**

Two main questions are treated in section 3, the qualitative aspect of the questionnaire. These questions are not structured but open. Therefore, respondents were at liberty to provide as much answers as they wanted. The academic staff are assumed to be conversant with the nature of their work and can, therefore, give a self-report about it. This helps in gathering more in-depth information. As revealed in the previous chapter, such qualitative questionnaires had been used in exploratory studies such as the research by Wang, Hsieh and Huan (2000) on the critical service features of the Group Package Tour (GPT) in Asia. It is useful in helping the researcher obtain more in-depth information from much more diverse respondents than using the opinions of a few. Therefore, the analytical procedure in this case involves identifying themes or factors that lecturers consider important for their personal growth and to remain in the university. The themes were identified based on meaning of a specific response to the researcher in relation to the categories of working conditions used in the structured section of the questionnaire. Though key themes were identified based on frequency or numbers of people that made reference to them, themes that capture something important in relation to the research question were all considered. In doing this, the responses were first studied, themes identified by highlighters and then coded. Five categories or classes of working conditions were formed based on the grouping used in developing the questions in structured section of the questionnaire; that is, salary and fringe benefits, career and professional development, working environment, teaching resources and facilities, and governance and leadership. The data themes identified are sorted into these categories by coding. To help our understanding and achieve greater insight into the meaning of the results obtained, numerical values are assigned to the results in form of frequency, percentage and rank.

#### **(i). In your opinion what would help you in your personal growth? Question 3(a).**

##### **(a). General Analysis of Themes from the entire Sample (Q3a)**

General analysis of the entire responses showing how the themes emerged is shown in Table 5.13.

**Table 5.13: Themes/factors important for personal growth (Qn. 3a) arranged according to frequency and approximated percentage of occurrence: based on the entire responses from the federal, state and private universities.**

1. Training, education and development	<b>101/248 = 40.7%</b>
2. Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc	<b>74/248 = 29.8%</b>
3. (a). Well-equipped Library /Laboratories /books/Journals	<b>33/248 = 13.3%</b>
(b). Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	<b>33/248 = 13.3%</b>
4. Information and Communication Technology	<b>30/248 = 12.1%</b>
5. (a). Office space and furnishing	<b>12/248 = 4.8%</b>
(b). Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	<b>12 = 4.8%</b>
6. Mentoring	<b>10 = 4.0%</b>
7. (a). Power/water supply (social amenities)/Environ cleanliness	<b>9 = 3.6%</b>
(b). Basic pay and allowances	<b>9 = 3.6%</b>
8. Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	<b>8 = 3.2%</b>
9. (a). Materials for research/Research Assist	<b>7 = 2.8%</b>
(b). Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward	<b>7 = 2.8%</b>
10. Classroom space and equipment	<b>5 = 2.0%</b>
11. (a). Modern instructional facilities	<b>4 = 1.6%</b>
(b). Good leadership	<b>4 = 1.6%</b>
(c). Recreational facilities/Canteen	<b>4 = 1.6%</b>
12. Religious/spiritual growth & Emt.	<b>3 = 1.2%</b>
13. (a). Peace and Security of life and property/discipline	<b>2 = 0.8%</b>
(b). Participation in decision /Responsibility/Freedom of expression	<b>2 = 0.8%</b>
(c). Loans	<b>2 = 0.8%</b>
(d). Promotion	<b>2 = 0.8%</b>

- |  |                 |
|--|-----------------|
| 14. (a). Communication/information                             | <b>1 = 0.4%</b> |
| (b). Equity/fair treatment/Respect/ Indigenization/ethnic bias | <b>1 = 0.4%</b> |
| (c). Opportunity for growth/Appointment                        | <b>1 = 0.4%</b> |

References with respect to training, education and development clearly emerged as the highest theme (40.7%) important for the personal growth of Nigerian academics' in their work. References to this theme are in the form such as: "constant workshops, seminars and in-service training"; "the University should encourage academic professional growth through sponsorship of staff to conferences workshops and post-graduate programs"; "support to undertake research and attend international workshops and conferences"; "attending conferences even overseas"; "I would appreciate sponsorship to conferences... and going on short courses in my area from time to time".

The theme coming next in frequency of reference is opportunity for research and publication (29.8%). It is identified with sentences such as "Funding my research endeavours"; "availability of research grants"; "financial support in form of research grant"; "and provision of conducive atmosphere for research and publication".

The themes 'Library/books/Journals/Laboratories' and 'Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students' have the same frequency of occurrence (13.3%). For the library and laboratories, the interest is mainly having them well-equipped with modern facilities, with the libraries stocked with current books and journals. This is captured in phrases such as: "equipping/furnishing the library with new books"; "Also, will appreciate institutional concern and provision of literature (appropriate) to staff and students"; "provision of functional laboratories and libraries"; "Laboratories and laboratory facilities to facilitate research"; "Access to current journals and books". For issue of workload: "Limited workload to allow for personal growth"; "Enough time for personal research"; "Creating time to do things that are needful for personal growth"; "Reduced teaching courses allocated to me"; "Manageable class size"; "Quality enrolment"; "decreased stress; "attachment of Graduate Assistants to professors".

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) follows with reference to it made by 12.1% of the respondents. Phrases such as the following were captured with regard to ICT: "access to computers and internet"; "effective internet access"; "connecting of internet services to my office"; "Provision of ICT facilities"; "availability of efficient internet connectivity".

When these themes are grouped (Table 5.14) under the categories earlier identified, career and professional development issues have the highest total frequency score of 178, that is, the number of times respondents made reference to one or more of its factors. This is followed by teaching resources and facilities with frequency of 89, work environmental factors follows with frequency of 71, then salary and fringe benefit 23, and lastly, governance and leadership with a frequency of 15.

**Table 5.14. Summary of frequency of themes for personal growth grouped into identified factors based on the entire sample, N = 248**

<b>Factors</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Salary and fringe benefits (SAB)	23
Career and professional development (CPD)	178
Work environment (WE)	71
Teaching resources and facilities (TRF)	89
Governance and leadership (GL)	15

**(b). Thematic analysis of Personal Growth factors Based on University Proprietorship (Q3a)**

The pattern of response based on analysis according to university types or proprietorship is almost similar (Tables 5.8). For the federal, state and private universities, their academic staff reference to training, education and development emerged as the most referenced important factors (41.6%, 39.0% and 41.6% respectively) for their personal growth, followed closely by Opportunity for research and Publication (40.4%, 18.3% and 29.9% respectively). For the federal and private university proprietorship, reference to workload and also ICT (in the case of federal) emerged as the next frequently mentioned factor for personal growth (14.6% and 16.9% respectively for the university types) while for the state university category, issues concerning library and laboratory equipment were the third frequently mentioned factors (15.9% ).

Looking at the three university sectors, five themes mostly found to be recurring in each of them as important for the personal growth of the academic staff have to do with training, education and development; opportunity for research and publication; library and laboratory; information and communication technology; and workload/stress. These issues were expressed in terms of support and opportunity to attend conferences and workshops, support for furthering education; research grant and support for publication especially in international journals; functional library with current books and journals;

reliable internet facility and provision of computers; and reduced teaching load in terms of number of students handled and other administrative issues. Again, issues having to do with CPD and TRF are most frequently emphasized in all the university categories as seen in the frequency in Table 5.8.

**Table 5.15: Summary of frequency of categories of factors important for personal growth according to individual university types (Q3a)**

<b>FACTORS</b>	<b>UNIVERSITY TYPE</b>			
	<b>FU</b>	<b>SU</b>	<b>PU</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
Salary and fringe benefit (SAB)	8	9	6	<b>23</b>
Career and professional development (CPD)	74	48	56	<b>178</b>
Work environment (WE)	30	20	21	<b>71</b>
Teaching resources and facilities (TRF)	41	24	24	<b>89</b>
Governance and leadership (GL)	5	4	6	<b>15</b>

#### **Federal Universities – (qualitative data, Q3a)**

Responses of academic staff from the six universities were also analysed individually. Tables 5.16-5.24 show their pattern of responses. In the federal universities, the first six themes highly referred to in the two universities, FA and FB important for personal growth are training, education and development, opportunity for research and publication, information and communication technology (ICT), library/books/journals/laboratories, workload/time, mentoring and office space. However, while in FA, the theme with most reference is training, education and development (54.3%) followed by opportunity for research and publication (28.6%), ICT (22.9%) and library/laboratory resources (20%); in FB the most referenced themes are opportunity for research and publication (48.1%) followed by training, education and development (33.3%), workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students (14.8%) and pension/health/housing/grant/welfare (11.1%). Grouping of the identified themes under the five conceptualized factors in both FA and FB produced the information in Table 5.18.

**Table 5.16: Themes/factors important for personal growth arranged according to frequency and approximated percentage of occurrence (Q3a) - federal university A (FA).**

1. Training, education and development	19/35 = 54.3%
2. Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	10/35 = 28.6%
3. Information and Communication Technology	8/35 = 22.9%
4. Library/books/Journals/Laboratories	7/35 = 20%
5. Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	5/35 = 14.3%
6. (a). Mentoring	4/35 = 11.4%
(b). Office space and furnishing	4/35 = 11.4%
7. Classroom space and equipment	3/35 = 8.6%
8. Power/water supply (social amenities)/Environ cleanliness	2/35 = 5.7%
9. (a). Participation in decision/Responsibility/Freedom of expression	1/35= 2.9%
(b). Materials for research/Research Assist	1/35 = 2.9%
(c). Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward	1/35= 2.9%
(d). Recreational facilities/Canteen	1/35 = 2.9%
(e). Basic pay and allowances	1/35= 2.9%
(f). Equity/fair treatment/Respect/ Indigenization/ethnic bias	1/35= 2.9%

**Table 5.17: Themes/factors important for personal growth arranged according to frequency and approximated percentage of occurrence (Q3a) - federal university B (FB)**

1. Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	26/54 = 48.1%
2. Training, education and development	18/54 = 33.3%
3. Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	8/54 = 14.8%
4. Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	6/54 = 11.1%
5. (a). Information and Communication Technology	5/54 = 9.3%
(b). Mentoring	5/54 = 9.3%
6. (a). Office space and furnishing	3/54 = 5.6%
7. (b). Library/books/Journals/Labs	3/54 = 5.6%
(c). Materials for research/Research Assist	3/54 = 5.6%
(d). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	3/54 = 5.6%
8. (a). Power/water supply (social amenities)/Envt cleanliness	2/54 = 3.7%



(b). Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward.  $2/54 = 3.7\%$

9. (a). Classroom space and equipment  $1/54 = 1.9\%$

(b). Recreational facilities/Canteen  $1/54 = 1.9\%$

(c). Peace and Security of life and property/discipline  $1/54 = 1.9\%$

(d). Opportunity for growth/Appointment  $1/54 = 1.9\%$

(e). Modern instructional facilities  $1/54 = 1.9\%$

(f). Loans  $1/54 = 1.9\%$

**Table 5.18: Grouping of themes important for personal growth into identified factors in federal universities (FU) – Q3a**

	THEME	Frequency	
		FA	FB
<b>Salary and fringe benefit (SAB)</b>	Basic pay and allowances	1	0
	Loans	0	1
	Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	0	6
	<b>Total (Reference to SAB)</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>Career and Professional Development (CPD)</b>	Training, education and development	19	18
	Opportunity for growth/Appointment	0	1
	Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	10	26
	<b>Total (Reference to CPD)</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>Work Environment (WE)</b>	Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	5	8
	Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	0	3
	Power/water supply (social amenities)/Environmental cleanliness	2	2
	Recreational facilities/Canteen	1	1
	Office space and furnishing	4	3
	Peace and Security of life and property/discipline	0	1
	<b>Total (Reference to WE)</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>Teaching Resources and Facilities (TRF)</b>	Information and Communication Technology	8	5
	Library/books/Journals/Labs	7	3
	Classroom space and equipment	3	1
	Mentoring	4	5
	Modern instructional facilities	0	1
	Materials for research/Research Assist	1	3
	<b>Total (Reference to TRF)</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>Governance and Leadership</b>	Participation in decision making/Responsibility/Freedom of expression	1	0

<b>(GL)</b>	Recognition/feedback/encouragement /Appreciation/Reward	1	2
	Equity/fair treatment/Respect/Indigenization/ethnic bias	1	0
	<b>Total (Reference to GL)</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>

In both universities, reference to issues related to CPD has the highest frequency of 29 in FA and 45 in FB. Statements in relation to CPD are such as: “Sponsorship full or part to conferences and workshops, short training programmes”; “Sponsorship to short courses abroad”; “Attending workshops, in-service training and conferences”; “...receiving research grants”; “Opportunity for self-actualization”; “...exposure to fellowship, multi-disciplinary conference sponsorships”; “Conducive and appealing research opportunities”; “...to attend important meetings both local and internationally.”. The second important factor for personal growth across the two universities based on the grouping is teaching resources and facilities (TRF). In FA, a total of 23 references were made to one or more of its items while in FB it is 18 references, the same frequency as working environment (WE). Reference to TRF were in form such as “...proper mentoring”; “A modern library with current and up to date books, effective internet access,”; “Provision of adequate instructional tools, access to computers and internet”; “Well-equipped and ICT compliant offices”; “...accessibility to virtual library”; “Given academic leadership from senior colleagues”; “If I have all necessary equipment and facilities to conduct meaningful research”; “Modern e-library with modern communication systems”. In FA, the frequency of academic staff’s reference to WE issues as among factors that would help in their personal growth is 12. In this regard, academics in this university want “Reduced workload”; “regular power supply”; “Decreased stress”; “bigger office well equipped with table chairs, fridge, air conditioner”; “proper allocation of resources for extracurricular activities”; “Good rapport with senior colleagues”; “sufficient time to attain to matters pertaining me”. In FA, least reference is made to salary and fringe benefits which has only one reference made to it while the least factor mentioned in FB is governance and leadership with only two references. Reference to SAB is in the form of statements such as “... higher financial remuneration”; “Prompt payment of salaries”; “Improved salary and allowances”; “... provision of accommodation within the academic environment”; “... loan facilities to improve welfare”. Reference to governance and leadership is represented by such statements as: “Equal opportunities”; “Objective promotion appraisal system/process”; “Exposure and opportunity to handle difficult assignments”; “Provision of reward in terms of promotion to academic staff on the basis of number of students as

well as other administrative responsibilities such as Exams officers, programme coordinators etc”; “encouragement”.

#### **State Universities – (qualitative data, Q3a)**

**Table 5.19: Themes/factors important for personal growth arranged according to frequency and approximated percentage of occurrence (Q3a) - state university A (SA)**

1. Training, education and development	<b>28/48 = 58.3%</b>
2. Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	<b>13/48 = 27.1%</b>
3. Library/books/Journals/Labs	<b>12/48 = 25%</b>
4. Information and Communication Technology	<b>8/48 = 16.7%</b>
5. Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	<b>5/48 = 10.4%</b>
6. (a). Power/water supply (social amenities)/Envt cleanliness	<b>4/48 = 8.3%</b>
(b). Office space and furnishing	<b>4/48 = 8.3%</b>
7. Basic pay and allowances	<b>3/48 = 6.3%</b>
8. (a). Recreational facilities/Canteen	<b>2/48 = 4.2%</b>
(b). Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	<b>2/48 = 4.2%</b>
9. (a). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	<b>1/48 = 2.1%</b>
(b). Materials for research/Research Assist	<b>1/48 = 2.1%</b>
(c). Loans	<b>1/48 = 2.1%</b>
(d). Good Leadership	<b>1/48 = 2.1%</b>
(e). Promotion	<b>1/48 = 2.1%</b>

**Table 5.20: Themes/factors important for personal growth arranged according to frequency and approximated percentage of occurrence (Q3a) - state university B (SB)**

1. Training, education and development	<b>4/34 = 11.8%</b>
2. Basic pay and allowances	<b>3/34 = 8.8%</b>
3. Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward	<b>3/34 = 8.8%</b>
4. Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	<b>2/34 = 5.9%</b>
5. Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	<b>2/34 = 5.9%</b>

6. (a). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment **1/34 = 2.9%**
- (b). Library/books/Journals/Labs **1/34 = 2.9%**
- (c). Mentoring **1/34 = 2.9%**
- (d). Modern instructional facilities **1/34 = 2.9%**
- (e). Peace and Security of life and property/discipline **1/34 = 2.9%**

Tables 5.19-5.21 show findings from responses to the investigated question from the two state universities (SA and SB) in the study. Prominent themes that clearly emerged (in terms of proportion) as important in enhancing personal growth among academic staff in SA include training, education and development (58.3%), opportunity for research and publication (27.1%), library and laboratory issues (25%), ICT issues (16.7%) and workload (10.4%). In SB, prominent themes among those that responded to the question are training, education and development (11.8%), basic pay and allowances (8.8%), recognition/encouragement/appreciation (8.8%), opportunity for research and publication (5.9%) and workload (5.9%). Grouping of these themes (Table 5.21) show that CPD has the highest reference as factor needed for personal growth of academic staff in both SA and SB. Frequency of reference for CPD issues in the two universities is 42 and 6 respectively. This is followed by teaching resources and facilities in the case of SA (21 references) but work environment in the case of SB (4 references).

**Table 5.21: Grouping of themes important for personal growth into identified factors - State Universities (SU)**

	THEME	Frequency	
		SA	SB
<b>Salary and Fringe benefit (SAB)</b>	Basic pay and allowances	3	3
	Loans	1	0
	Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	2	0
	<b>Total (Reference to SAB)</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>Career and Professional Development (CPD)</b>	Training, education and development	28	4
	Promotion	1	0
	Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	13	2
	<b>Total (Reference to CPD)</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Work Environment (WE)</b>	Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	5	2
	Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	1	1

	Power/water supply (social amenities)/Environmental cleanliness	4	0
	Recreational facilities/Canteen	2	0
	Office space and furnishing	4	0
	Peace and Security of life and property/discipline	0	1
	<b>Total (Reference to WE)</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>Teaching Resources and Facilities (TRF)</b>	Information and Communication Technology	8	0
	Library/books/Journals/Labs	12	1
	Mentoring	0	1
	Modern instructional facilities	0	1
	Materials for research/Research Assist	1	0
	<b>Total (Reference to TRF)</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>3</b>
	Recognition/feedback/encouragement /Appreciation/Reward	0	3
	Good leadership	1	0
	<b>Total (Reference to GL)</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>

### Private Universities – (qualitative data, Q3a)

Tables 5.22-5.24 indicate themes arising from responses from academic staff in the private universities. In PA (Table 5.15), the highest proportion of academics (47.8%) cited training, education and development as what would help them in their personal growth. This is followed by opportunity for research and publication (28.3%), reduced workload (15.2%), reference to library and laboratory (15.2%), ICT (10.9%). In PB, the pattern is training, education and development (32.3%), opportunity for research and publication (32.3%), Workload/stress/time (19.4%), Information and Communication Technology (12.9%), etc.

Summarily, grouping of the themes for factors important for personal growth (Table 5.24) shows that CPD has the highest number of references to one or more of its themes in both PA (with 35 references ) and PB (21 references). In both universities TRF follows with 13 references in PA and 11 references in PB. References related to work environment issues are equally high in both PA and PB, having 12 and 9 references respectively.

**Table 5.22: Themes/factors important for personal growth arranged according to frequency and approximated percentage of occurrence (Q3a) - private university A (PA)**

1. Training, education and development	<b>22/46 = 47.8%</b>
2. Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	<b>13/46 = 28.3%</b>
3. Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	<b>7/46 = 15.2%</b>
4. Library/books/Journals/Labs	<b>7/46 = 15.2%</b>
5. Information and Communication Technology	<b>5/46 = 10.9%</b>
6. (a). Good leadership	<b>3/46 = 6.5%</b>
(b). Religious/spiritual growth & Eenvt.	<b>3/46 = 6.5%</b>
7. Basic pay and allowances	<b>2/46 = 4.3%</b>
8. (a). Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	<b>1/46 = 2.2%</b>
(b). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	<b>1/46 = 2.2%</b>
(c). Office space and furnishing	<b>1/46 = 2.2%</b>
(d). Classroom space and equipment	<b>1/46 = 2.2%</b>
(e). Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward	<b>1/46 = 2.2%</b>

**Table 5.23: Themes/factors important for personal growth arranged according to frequency and approximated percentage of occurrence (Q3a) - private university B (PB)**

1. Training, education and development	<b>10/31 = 32.3%</b>
2. Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	<b>10/31 = 32.3%</b>
3. Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	<b>6/31 = 19.4%</b>
4. Information and Communication Technology	<b>4/31 = 12.9%</b>
5. (a)Library/books/Journals/Labs	<b>3/31 = 9.7%</b>
(b) Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	<b>3/31 = 9.7%</b>
6. (a). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	<b>2/31 = 6.5%</b>
(b).Modern instructional facilities	<b>2/31 = 6.5%</b>
(c) Materials for research/Research Assist	<b>2/31 = 6.5%</b>

7. (a). Promotion

1/31 = 3.2%

(b). Power/water supply (social amenities)/Environ cleanliness

1/31 = 3.2%

(c). Participation in decisions /Responsibility/Freedom of expression

1/31 = 3.2%

(d). Communication/information

1/31 = 3.2%

**Table 5.24: Grouping of themes important for personal growth into identified factors in Private Universities (PU) – Q3a**

	THEME	Frequency	
		PA	PB
<b>Salary and Fringe Benefit (SAB)</b>	Basic pay and allowances	2	0
	Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	1	3
	<b>Total (Reference to SAB)</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>Career and Professional Development (CPD)</b>	Training, education and development	22	10
	Promotion	0	1
	Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	13	10
	<b>Total (Reference to CPD)</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>Work Environment (WE)</b>	Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	7	6
	Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	1	2
	Power/water supply (social amenities)/Environmental cleanliness	0	1
	Office space and furnishing	1	0
	Religious/spiritual growth & Envt.	3	0
	<b>Total (Reference to WE)</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>Teaching Resources and Facilities (TRF)</b>	Information and Communication Technology	5	4
	Library/books/Journals/Labs	7	3
	Classroom space and equipment	1	0
	Modern instructional facilities	0	2
	Materials for research/Research Assist	0	2
	<b>Total (Reference to TRF)</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>Governance and Leadership (GL)</b>	Participation in decision making/Responsibility/Freedom of expression	0	1
	Communication/information	0	1
	Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward	1	0
	Good leadership	3	0
	<b>Total (Reference to GL)</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>2</b>

**(ii). What would make you more inclined to stay in the university? Question 3(b).**

**(a) General Analysis of Themes from the entire sample (Qn3b)**

Tables 5.25-5.35 highlight the themes from responses to the question that tries to identify those issues that academic staff consider necessary to keep them on their job. Table 5.25 shows in general, the themes that emerged from all the responses from the respondents in the survey to the question under consideration. From the first five themes that have the highest frequency of mention, basic pay and allowances emerged as the most frequently cited theme that would make academics in the selected Nigerian universities more inclined to stay in the university. The proportion of the entire sample that made reference to it is 21.0%. Welfare issues are next in frequency of occurrence with 20.2% of the academic staff making mention of them. Opportunities for training, education and development is the next theme highly cited, with many of the participants (16.5%) citing it as one of the themes that would make them more inclined to remain in their universities. This is followed closely by opportunity for research and publication, with 16.1% of the participants citing it as one of the considerations for decision to stay. Consideration with regard to promotion is cited by 13.7% of the entire sample. The issue concerning promotion is related mostly to having the promotion exercise done ‘as at when due’ and timely release of the outcome of the exercise. Reference to the issue of promotion is highest with the state university type which has it as the third emphasis (18.3%) based on frequency count; the federal and private universities have it as the fourth (11.2% and 11.7% respectively). Also of note in this analysis is the issue of equity, respect and fair treatment of staff. Reference to this is more with the public sector universities especially the state universities. The emphasis here, especially in the state universities, has to do with ethnic, state and religious bias in assignment of responsibilities or appointments and promotion, with emphasis made to abolition of indigenization policy of one of the state universities.

The concern for job security as factor for remaining in the university is highest with the private university sector, coming fifth on the list with 10.4% of the respondents from the university type making reference to it. For example, one of the respondents in the private university made reference to “good management that guarantees job security”. This is further explained by extant literature. This is against the federal university sector that has 6.7% and state university sector with 4.9% references. Reference to equity/ Equity/fair treatment/Respect/ Indigenization/ethnic bias is 9.0% for federal university sector, 9.8% for state university sector and 1.3% for private university sector.



**Table 5.25. Arrangement of themes/factors important to remain in the university in order of frequency of occurrence for the entire sample, N = 248.**

1. Basic pay and allowances	<b>52/248 = 21.0%</b>
2. Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	<b>50/248 = 20.2%</b>
3. Training, education and development	<b>41/248 = 16.5%</b>
4. Opportunity for research and Publication	<b>40/248 = 16.1%</b>
5. Promotion	<b>34/248 = 13.7%</b>
6. Job security	<b>18/248 = 7.3%</b>
7. Equity/fair treatment/Respect/ Indigenization/ethnic bias	<b>17/248 = 6.9%</b>
8. Good leadership	<b>15/248 = 6.0%</b>
9. Information and Communication Technology	<b>14/248 = 5.6%</b>
10. (a) Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	<b>12/248 = 4.8%</b>
(b). Office space and furnishing	<b>12/248 = 4.8%</b>
(c). Participation in decisions/Responsibility/Freedom of expression.	<b>12/248 = 4.8%</b>
11. (a). Library/books/Journals/Labs	<b>10/248 = 4.0%</b>
(b). Power/water supply (social amenities)/Envt cleanliness	<b>10/248 = 4.0%</b>
12. (a). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	<b>8/248 = 3.2%</b>
(b) Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward	<b>8/248 = 3.2%</b>
(c). Classroom space and equipment	<b>8/248 = 3.2%</b>
13. Peace and Security of life and property/discipline	<b>7/248 = 2.8%</b>
14. Recreational facilities/Canteen	<b>5/248 = 2.0%</b>
15. (a). Mentoring	<b>3/248 = 1.2%</b>
(b). Religious/spiritual growth & Envt.	<b>3/248 = 1.2%</b>
16. Materials for research/Research Assistant	<b>2/248 = 0.8%</b>
11. (a). Modern instructional facilities	<b>1/248 = 0.4%</b>
(b). Loans	<b>1/248 = 0.4%</b>

(c). Communication/information

1/248 = 0.4%

(d). Opportunity for growth/Appointment

1/248 = 0.4%

**Table 5.26: Summary of frequency of occurrence of working condition factors (or categories) important for remaining in the university for the entire sample.**

<b>FACTORS</b>	<b>No. of References</b>			
	<b>FU n = 89</b>	<b>SU n = 82</b>	<b>PU n = 77</b>	<b>TOTAL N = 248</b>
Sal & fringe benefit (SAB)	29	47	27	<b>103</b>
Career & professional development (CPD)	50	41	43	<b>134</b>
Work environment (WE)	31	11	15	<b>57</b>
Teaching resources & facilities (TRF)	15	13	10	<b>38</b>
Governance and leadership (GL)	23	20	10	<b>53</b>

FU – Federal University, SU – State University, PU – Private University

Table 5.26 shows the summary of all the themes under the earlier identified categories of working conditions. From the entire sample, it is observed that issues related to CPD emerged as the most frequently cited themes important to remain in the system with majority of the participants citing many of its themes, a total of 134 references. This is followed by considerations about salary and fringe benefits that has a total of 103 references to it. The themes connected with teaching resources and facilities which were highly cited as important for personal growth of academics appear to be the least cited among factors important for consideration to stay among academics, with only 38 references to one or more of its items.

From the table, the main themes that featured under career and professional development include training, education and development, followed very closely by opportunity for research and publication, and then, promotion and job security. Important issues under salary and fringe benefit category are salary and fringe benefits and welfare issues such as “enhanced salary”, “good welfare package”, “good pension/retirement benefits”, etc. For work environment, keys issues that occurred have to do with workload, with mention made of stress, need for graduate assistant, time for research and some other issues and

quality of students; office space and furnishing which have the same frequency of reference as workload; and issues about social amenities particularly with regard to stable power and water supply. In the category of governance and leadership, key references made have to do with equity/fair treatment/respect and also the need for good leadership. Also, references to participation in decision-making/responsibility were also made as factors that would made the academics more inclined to stay in the university. Under teaching and resource facilities, the main themes that would make academic staff to remain in the university as noted by their frequency of appearance are information and communication technology (ICT) and library and laboratory equipment. Some of the responses include “provision of good library, internet services, research lab”; “provision of modern and current text books and journals”; “Improved facilities, classrooms, and other infrastructural facilities”; “adequate provision of teaching aids, classroom space, internet facilities;” etc.

#### **(b). Analysis of Factors important to remain in the institutions Based on University Type (Q3b)**

##### **i. Themes from the Federal Universities**

Coming down to the analysis of the six universities individually, in the federal university category, the theme listed most by academics in FA as part of their consideration in decisions about whether or not to continue to stay in the university is pay and allowances, with 25.7% of them making reference to it (Table 5.27). They want enhanced and regular payment of salary and other remunerations. The next important considerations are welfare issues like “assurance of timely payment of retirement benefits”, and training, education and development opportunities both of which were cited by 20% of the academic staff. Consideration with regard to promotion in decision about staying in the university has to do with such issues as promotion being regular and given as at the time the staff is due for the exercise. This was cited by 17.1% of the respondents, while the themes ‘opportunity for research and publication’, issues dealing with social amenities like ‘power/water supply and clean environment’, equity issues like fair and equal treatment with regard to “especially promotion and sponsorship” and elimination of ethnic bias were all cited by 11.4% of the respondents respectively. Other themes that emerged in FA are as shown in Table 5.27.

Analysis of responses from FB and themes extracted therein are shown in Table 5.28. The most highly cited theme in this case is opportunity for research and publication (24.1%)

followed by welfare issues (16.7%) such as provision of housing, giving soft loans, “good pension/retirement benefits”, and training, education and development issues (16.7%) such as in providing “opportunities for personal growth and development”, “proper staff training”, “... increased priority to capacity development of staff” and sponsorship for further study. Some other considerations that would make the academic staff in FB more inclined to stay in the university, if provided, include if there is regular supply of power and water (9.3%), if there is job security (9.3%) and where peace and security of life and property/discipline exist (9.3%). These were presented in a way such as “peaceful atmosphere and violence free environment”, “environment conducive for safety of lives and properties” and “if one feels secure working in an environment where there is no threats”. Surprisingly, only 5.6% of the academics in this university cited issues to do with basic pay and allowances. About 7.4% of respondents here made reference to issues concerning equity and ethnic bias as one of the considerations in taking a decision whether or not to stay. This is in connection with statements such as: “... if ethnic and religious sentiments are thrown aware (sic)”, “justice and equity”, “more equity and justice in appointments and promotions”. Also, issues concerning ICT and participation in decision were cited by 7.4% of the respondents from FB.

When the identified themes important for decision to stay in FA and FB are grouped under the five aspects of working conditions in the study, both have the highest citation for CPD related items. For this, FA has 18 references to one or more items of CPD while in the case of FB it is 32 references (Table 5.28). TRF related issues has the lowest number of references amongst the five factors categories considered in the two federal universities, with FA having a total of 4 references made to one or more of its elements and FB having 11 references. That seems to suggest that though issues related to TRF are important in the decision to stay or leave, they are not as compelling as issues related to the other four factors, career and professional development, salary and fringe benefits, work environment and governance and leadership.

**Table 5.27: Arrangement of themes important in order to remain in the university in order of frequency of occurrence for Federal University A (FA), N = 35 (Q3b)**

1. Basic pay and allowances	9/35 = 25.7%
2. (a). Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	7/35 = 20%
(b). Training, education and development	7/35 = 20%
3. Promotion	6/35 = 17.1%
4. (a). Opportunity for research and Publication	4/35 = 11.4%
(b). Power/water supply (social amenities)/Envt cleanliness.	4/35 = 11.4%

(c). Equity/fair treatment/Respect/ Indigenization/ethnic bias	4/35 = 11.4%
5. (a). Less Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	3/35 = 8.6%
(b). Office space and furnishing	3/35 = 8.6%
6. (a). Information and Communication Technology	2/35 = 5.7%
(b). Participation in decision/Responsibility/Freedom of expression.	2/35 = 5.7%
(c). Good leadership	2/35 = 5.7%
7. (a). Job security	1/35 = 2.9%
(b). Peace and Security of life and property/discipline	1/35 = 2.9%
(c). Classroom space and equipment	1/35 = 2.9%
(d). Library/books/Journals/Labs	1/35 = 2.9%
(e) Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward	1/35 = 2.9%
(f). Recreational facilities/Canteen	1/35 = 2.9%

**Table 5.28: Arrangement of themes/factors important in order to remain in the university in order of frequency of occurrence for Federal University B (FB), N = 54 (Q3b)**

1. Opportunity for research and Publication	13/54 = 24.1%
2. (a). Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	9/54 = 16.7%
(b). Training, education and development	9/54 = 16.7%
3. (a). Power/water supply (social amenities)/Environ cleanliness	5/54 = 9.3%
(b). Job security	5/54 = 9.3%
(c). Peace and Security of life and property/discipline	5/54 = 9.3%
4. (a). Promotion	4/54 = 7.4%
(b). Equity/fair treatment/Respect/ Indigenization/ethnic bias	4/54 = 7.4%
(c). Information and Communication Technology	4/54 = 7.4%
(d). Participation in decision/Responsibility/Freedom of expression.	4/54 = 7.4%
5. (a). Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	3/54 = 5.6%
(b). Office space and furnishing	3/54 = 5.6%
(c). Basic pay and allowances	3/54 = 5.6%
(d). Good leadership	3/54 = 5.6%
(e). Classroom space and equipment	3/54 = 5.6%
(f). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	3/54 = 5.6%
6 (a). Library/books/Journals/Labs	2/54 = 3.7%
(b) Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward.	2/54 = 3.7%
7. (a). Mentoring	1/54 = 1.9%
(b). Modern instructional facilities	1/54 = 1.9%
(c). Loans	1/54 = 1.9%

(d). Communication/information

1/54 = 1.9%

(e). Opportunity for growth/Appointment

1/54 = 1.9%

**Table 5.29. Grouping of themes important in order to stay in the university under the working condition factors studied and frequency of occurrence: analysis of the federal universities (FU) - (Q3b)**

Factor	Theme	Frequency FA	Frequency FB
<b>Salary and Fringe Benefit (SAB)</b>	Basic pay and allowances	9	3
	Loans	0	1
	Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	7	9
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to SAB)</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>Career and Professional Development (CPD)</b>	Training, education and development	7	9
	Job Security	1	5
	Promotion	6	4
	Opportunity for growth/Appointment	0	1
	Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	4	13
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to CPD)</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>Work Environment (WE)</b>	Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	3	3
	Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	0	3
	Power/water supply (social amenities)/Environmental cleanliness	4	5
	Recreational facilities/Canteen	1	0
	Office space and furnishing	3	3
	Peace and Security of life and property/discipline	1	5
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to WE)</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>Teaching Resources and Facilities (TRF)</b>	Information and Communication Technology	2	4
	Library/books/Journals/Labs	1	2
	Classroom space and equipment	1	3
	Mentoring	0	1
	Modern instructional facilities	0	1
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to TRF)</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>Governance and Leadership (GL)</b>	Participation in decision making/Responsibility/Freedom of expression	2	4
	Communication/information	0	1
	Recognition/feedback/encouragement	1	2

	ent/Appreciation/Reward		
	Equity/fair treatment/Respect/ Indigenization/ethnic bias	4	4
	Good leadership	2	3
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to GL)</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>14</b>

## ii. Themes from the state universities

Tables 5.30 – 5.32 show the themes with regard to taking decisions to remain in the universities from academic staff in the state universities under study. In Table 5.30, showing the themes emerging from responses in SA, the most highly cited themes that would be part of the decision about remaining in the universities among the academics is basic pay and allowances (39.6%), such as “Enhancement of salaries to meet up with other university”, “Full implementation of the Nigerian universities salary structure, “...timely payment of salaries and allowances”, “Increase of our salary to be at par with our contemporaries in the federal universities”. This is followed by welfare issues (37.5%) such as “... good pension/retirement benefits”, “... implementation of contributory pension fund”, “Access to affordable accommodation”. Promotion issues and opportunity for research and publication are also themes that are of interest to academic staff in this university and hence, would form part of their consideration on whether to stay. About 25% of them made reference to both themes. References to promotion were stated in such a way as: “Give me promotion when due”, “Prompt promotion when due and when qualified”, “promotion at the appropriate time”. The concern for research and publication has to do with, for instance, “Providing enough opportunities for research”, “encouraging/sponsoring staff for research work”, “provision of enabling environment to carry out research”, “provision of research grants”. Some other issues of concern in deciding the possibility to remain in the university mentioned by the academic in this university include training, education and development (16.7%), expressed as, for example, “sponsorship in local and international conferences and workshops”, “improved staff development”, “Sponsorship to fulltime studies”, “... opportunities for professional development”. Reference to equity/fair treatment/indigenization issues is 14.6%, stated in a manner such as, “A university law that reflects national outlook, -Less emphasis on indigene matters”, “The indigenization policy of the university should be abolished”, “equality to compete for opportunities”, “More transparent selection of leaders”, “ fairness and openness of electing HODs Deans”.

Table 5.31 shows themes from responses of academics in SB with regard to conditions to remain in the university. The most highly cited themes by academic staff in this university

are basic salary and allowances (14.7%) such as “Improved salary and allowances comparable to what obtains in federal universities”, “Prompt payment of entitlements”, “If ... pay is regular”, “enhanced remuneration”; welfare issues cited also by 14.7% of the academic staff in a way such as “... accommodation and good welfare”, “good welfare package”, “Reasonable welfare package”. Promotion issues were cited by 8.8% of the respondents with statements such as “Prompt promotion when qualified and due”, “If promotion ... is regular”.

**Table 5.30: Arrangement of themes/factors important in order to remain in the university in order of frequency of occurrence for State University A (SA), N = 48 - (Q3b)**

1. Basic pay and allowances	<b>19/48 = 39.6%</b>
2. Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	<b>18/48 = 37.5%</b>
3. (a). Promotion	<b>12/48 = 25%</b>
(b). Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc	<b>12/48 = 25%</b>
4. Training, education and development	<b>8/48 = 16.7%</b>
5. Equity/fair treatment/Respect/ Indigenization/ethnic bias	<b>7/48 = 14.6%</b>
6. (a). Good leadership	<b>6/48 = 12.5%</b>
(b). Library/books/Journals/Labs	<b>6/48 = 12.5%</b>
7. (a). Information and Communication Technology	<b>4/48 = 8.3%</b>
(b). Job security	<b>4/48 = 8.3%</b>
(c). Recreational facilities/Canteen	<b>4/48 = 8.3%</b>
8. Participation in decision/Responsibility/Freedom of expression	<b>3/48 = 6.25%</b>
9. (a). Classroom space and equipment	<b>2/48 = 4.2%</b>
(b). Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	<b>2/48 = 4.2%</b>
10. (a). Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward	<b>1/48 = 2.1%</b>
(b). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	<b>1/48 = 2.1%</b>
(c). Power/water supply (social amenities)/Environ cleanliness.	<b>1/48 = 2.1%</b>
(d). Material for research	<b>1/48 = 2.1%</b>



**Table 5.31: Arrangement of themes/factors important in order to remain in the university in order of frequency of occurrence for State University B (SB), N = 34 – (Q3b)**

1. (a). Basic pay and allowances 5/34 = 14.7%  
     (b). Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare 5/34 = 14.7%
2. Promotion 3/34 = 8.8%
3. (a). Training, education and development 2/34 = 5.9%
4. (b). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment 2/34 = 5.9%
5. (a). Equity/fair treatment/Respect/ Indigenization/ethnic bias 1/34 = 2.9%  
     (b). Participation in decision/Responsibility/Freedom of expression. 1/34 = 2.9%
- (c). Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward 1/34 = 2.9%
- (d). Peace and Security of life and property/discipline 1/34 = 2.9%

Grouping of the various themes from the two state universities under the five identified working condition factors is presented in Table 5.25. In both SA and SB, issues related to salary and fringe benefit has the highest citation for conditions important for making a decision to stay in the university by academic staff. In SA the total reference to issues connected to this factor is 37 while in SB it is 10. For both universities again CPD has the next highest citation of one or more of its themes, with SA having 36 and SB having 5.

**Table 5.32: Grouping of themes important in order to stay in the university under the working condition factors studied and frequency of occurrence: analysis of the state universities (SU) – (Q3b)**

	THEME	Frequency	Frequency
		SA	SB
<b>Salary and Fringe Benefits (SAB)</b>	Basic pay and allowances	19	5
	Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	18	5
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to SAB)</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Career and Professional Development (CPD)</b>	Training, education and development	8	2
	Job Security	4	0
	Promotion	12	3
	Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	12	0
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to CPD)</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Work Environment (WE)</b>	Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	2	0
	Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	1	2
	Power/water supply (social amenities)/Environmental cleanliness	1	0

	Recreational facilities/Canteen	4	0
	Peace and Security of life and property/discipline	0	1
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to WE)</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>Teaching Resources and Facilities (TRF)</b>	Information and Communication Technology	4	0
	Library/books/Journals/Labs	6	0
	Classroom space and equipment	2	0
	Materials for research/Research Assist	1	0
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to TRF)</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>Governance and Leadership (GL)</b>	Participation in decision making/Responsibility/Freedom of expression	3	1
	Recognition/feedback/encouragement /Appreciation/Reward	1	1
	Equity/fair treatment/Respect/Indigenization/ethnic bias	7	1
	Good leadership	6	0
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to GL)</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>3</b>

### iii. Themes from Private Universities

Tables 5.33 – 5.35 present the results from analysis of the responses from the academics in private universities to the question on factors that would make the academics more inclined to remain in their university. In PA, basic pay and allowances is the most highly cited theme with 26.1% of the respondents mentioning it as one of the concerns for making decision to stay in the university. Some of the responses related to the theme include: “Better and enhanced pay package that is comparable to federal universities”, “Payment of what federal universities pay in terms of salary”, “Salary payment that is at par with the public university”, “Improved salary”. They also need to consider training, education and development opportunities present in the university to decide whether to stay. This theme was cited by 23.9% of the respondents in the forms: “Sponsorship to seminars and conferences”, “...empowerment for higher (Doctoral) studies”, “Human capacity growth and development”, “motivation of staff in areas of trainings for those that require it”, “Sponsorship for higher degrees”, “If the university encourages sponsorship of conferences, professional examination and other carrier pursuit”, “...and improved career advancement prospects”, “The university should provide an avenue for professional development by sponsorship”, “More opportunities for personal growth and development”. The themes, opportunity for research and publication and also office space and furnishing were, each, cited by 13% of the respondents. The concern for research and publication has to do with, for example: “Provision of research oriented facilities”,

“Stronger and better research orientation that involves everyone”, “...and provision of internet access to make research easy”. One respondent summed it up this way: “I would be more inclined to stay if more funding is made available for quality research and up to date equipment are available”. With respect to office, the academics in this university also want “Better working environment such as better office” or “, improved office conditions”. Other themes resulting from the analysis are as shown in Table 5.33

The most cited theme that academic staff in PB would consider to be more inclined to stay in the university is welfare issues such as accommodation. About 25.8% of the respondents made reference to it (Table 5.34) in various forms such as: “Good accommodation”, “Generous welfare package”; “Better welfare package (not necessarily monetary)”; “... welfare package and ... comparable to what they are in public universities”; “Well defined staff welfare package with accommodation facilities”. Opportunity for research and publications is also an important consideration in order to stay. About 16.1% of the academics from this institution cited it. This is captured in phrases such as: “Funds, grants, etc. for research”; “Good atmosphere for research work”; “... and suitable atmosphere for research from the authority”. Also, 16.1% of the academic staff made reference to promotion; captured as, for example, “Timely promotion”; “Promotion prospects”. There is also consideration for the themes ‘basic pay and allowances’, ‘training, education and development’ and ‘job security’. Each of these themes has 12.9% of academics making reference to them in varying ways. For instance, in the case of salary some of the concerns have to do with having “good remuneration or “... salary/allowance comparable to what they are in public universities”. In terms training, education and development, the academics in this university would think in terms of the university’s provision of “Adequate support both financially and morally for personal development”; how well the university is willing to “... sponsor conferences and seminars both at home and abroad” and if “Commencement of post-graduate studies” is possible. The theme ‘job security’ is captured in phrases such as “Job security, i.e. assurance of one relevance in the system” and “...tenure elongation possibility”.

Table 5.35 summarises the themes from both PA and PB under the same five working conditions factors used in earlier analysis. In both cases, career and professional development has the highest total number of references. For PA, career and professional development related issues have a total of 25 references while in PB it has a total of 18. Salary and fringe benefit related issues come next in both, with PA having a total of 15 references and PB having 12 references.

**Table 5.33: Arrangement of themes/factors important in order to remain in the university in order of frequency of occurrence for Private University A (PA), N = 46**

1. Basic pay and allowances	12/46 = 26.1%
2. Training, education and development	11/46 = 23.9%
3. (a). Opportunity for research and Publication	6/46 = 13%
(b). Office space and furnishing	6/46 = 13%
4. (a). Promotion	4/46 = 8.7%
(b). Job security	4/46 = 8.7%
(c). Good leadership	4/46 = 8.7%
5. (a). Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	3/46 = 6.5%
(b). Information and Communication Technology	3/46 = 6.5%
(c). Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	3/46 = 6.5%
(d). Religious/spiritual growth & Env't	3/46 = 6.5%
6. (a). Participation in decision/Responsibility/Freedom of expression	1/46 = 2.2%
(b). Mentoring	1/46 = 2.2%
(c). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	1/46 = 2.2%
(d). Classroom space and equipment	1/46 = 2.2%
(e). Material for research	1/46 = 2.2%
(f). Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward	1/46 = 2.2%

**Table 5.34: Arrangement of themes/factors important in order to remain in the university in order of frequency of occurrence for Private University B (PB), N = 31**

1. Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	8/31 = 25.8%
2. (a). Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc	5/31 = 16.1%
(b). Promotion	5/31 = 16.1%
3. (a). Basic pay and allowances	4/31 = 12.9%
(b). Training, education and development	4/31 = 12.9%
(c). Job security	4/31 = 12.9%
4. Recognition/feedback/encouragement/Appreciation/Reward	2/31 = 6.5%
5. (a). Information and Communication Technology	1/31 = 3.2%
(b). Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	1/31 = 3.2%
(c). Participation in decision/Responsibility/Freedom of expression.	1/31 = 3.2%
(d). Mentoring	1/31 = 3.2%
(e). Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	1/31 = 3.2%
(f). Classroom space and equipment	1/31 = 3.2%
(g). Equity/fair treatment/Respect/ Indigenization/ethnic bias	1/31 = 3.2%
(h). Library/books/Journals/Labs	1/31 = 3.2%

**Table 5.35: Grouping of themes important in order to stay in the university under the working condition factors studied and frequency of occurrence: analysis of the private universities (PU) – (Q3b)**

	Theme	Frequency	Frequency
		PA	PB
<b>Salary and Fringe Benefit (SAB)</b>	Basic pay and allowances	12	4
	Pension/health/housing/grant/welfare	3	8
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to SAB)</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>Career and Professional Development (CPD)</b>	Training, education and development	11	4
	Job Security	4	4
	Promotion	4	5
	Opportunity for research and Publication – grant, etc.	6	5
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to CPD)</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>Work Environment (WE)</b>	Workload/stress/Grad. Asst/Time/Quality of students	3	1
	Co-worker relationship/Team/Friendly environment	1	1
	Office space and furnishing	6	0
	Religious/spiritual growth & Envt.	3	0
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to WE)</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>Teaching Resources and Facilities (TRF)</b>	Information and Communication Technology	3	1
	Library/books/Journals/Labs	0	1
	Classroom space and equipment	1	1
	Mentoring	1	1
	Materials for research/Research Assist	1	0
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to TRF)</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>Governance and Leadership (GL)</b>	Participation in decision making/Responsibility/Freedom of expression	1	1
	Recognition/feedback/encouragement /Appreciation/Reward	1	2
	Equity/fair treatment/Respect/Indigenization/ethnic bias	0	1
	Good leadership	4	0
	<b>TOTAL (Reference to GL)</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>

### 5.2.3 Assessment of the Performance of the Universities

Organizations are always striving for survival and to improve their performance. Nigerian universities are no exception in this. That is why Nigerian government had put in place several reform exercises in the university system. Investigating the performances of the universities studied in this research alongside issues on working conditions and

organizational commitment is important in order to identify factors that are likely inhibiting the achievement of their goals. This will help them to position themselves well for competition with others. Therefore, this investigation would be helpful for them to understand areas they can or should make changes for better performance. In this regard, they will be able to set priorities, focus energy and resources in those areas they find limiting to the achievement of their objectives for existence. Part of the significance of this present research is that, it intends to elucidate information that would be helpful for policy makers and management of university institutions in Nigeria. Since the study is conducted across university proprietorship/ownership divides, the different universities studied would be able to know their positions or strength and weaknesses in relation to the performances of others, and where more efforts and resources would be channelled based on the expressed needs of the academic staff. For instance, opportunity for research and publication is important to the academics because of its place in their career growth. It is equally important in positioning the universities in relation to others in terms of performance, since it is part of their major functions. This is why some of the academics at the preliminary interviews were lamenting about the poor conditions of facilities and materials that inhibit their research activities. With the information on satisfaction, needs for personal growth and needs to stay, combined with information on performance, the universities would be able to have a good picture of how to deal with the situations presented in the findings, as the case may be. Further, as revealed in the thematic analysis of the responses of the academics, much of the intense comments which have bearing on research opportunity came from PB which, as would be seen later, has no record for research and publication. Therefore, it is important for these universities to see how such comments and needs of their staff are probably reflecting on their performance in the affected areas. This would likely provide impetus for renewed attention on those issues perceived to be affecting their activities.

The statistics used in investigating the level of performance of the universities for the different performance indicators are simple averages and percentages. Performances are assessed in the areas of teaching and research for the period 2009 to 2011. The indicators and what they represent have been reviewed in the conceptual framework. Teaching indicators used as measurement in the study are percentage of graduating students that made first class honours (Table 5.36) and percentage of the academic staff that are in professorial cadre (associate professors/readers and above, Table 5.37). For research, performance is assessed in terms of number or percentage of academic staff that published research findings or theoretical papers during the period reviewed (Table 5.38).

Suggestions from the universities for improvement on achievement of their goals and hence, performance is provided in section 5.2.4.

**(i). Performances in teaching objectives**

**Table 5.36: Total Graduating students for federal, state and private universities with percentage of graduates with 1<sup>st</sup> class honours.**

	Total Graduates									Ave Per for ma nce %
	2009			2010			2011			
		No. 1 <sup>st</sup> Class	% 1 <sup>st</sup> Clas s		No. 1 <sup>st</sup> Class	% 1 <sup>st</sup> Clas s		No. 1 <sup>st</sup> Clas s	% 1 <sup>st</sup> Clas s	
All FU	10,065	111	1.1	10,225	54	1.0	7490	56	1.0	1.0
FA	2949	95	3.2	4441	46	1.0	4459	47	1.1	1.8
FB	7116	16	0.2	5784	8	0.1	3031	9	0.3	0.2
All SU	4,859	6	0.1	3,988	12	0.3	2,959	2	0.1	0.2
SA	3011	2	0.1	1725	7	0.4	301	0	0	0.2
SB	1848	4	0.2	2263	5	0.2	2658	2	0.1	0.2
All PU	1,274	39	3.1	1,078	33	3.1	1,683	36	2.1	2.8
PA	481	14	2.9	243	10	4.1	705	8	1.1	2.7
PB	793	25	3.2	835	23	2.8	978	28	2.9	3
Total	16,198	156		15,292	99		12,132	94		

FA – Federal univ. A; FB – Federal univ. B; SA – State univ. A; SB – State univ. B; PA – Private univ. A; PB – Private univ. B; FU – Fed univ; SU – State univ; PU – Private university.

**Table 5.37: Percentage of staff at Professorial cadre as at 2011**

University Type	Professors and Readers (X)	Total Acad Staff (Y)	% (X) of (Y)	AVE % for each Univ type
Federal				<b>18.8</b>
FA	340	1785	<b>19</b>	
FB	353	1908	<b>18.5</b>	
<b>Total, FU</b>	<b>693</b>	<b>3693</b>	<b>37.5</b>	
State				<b>24.5</b>
SA	150	780	<b>19.2</b>	
SB	109	367	<b>29.7</b>	
<b>Total, SU</b>	<b>259</b>	<b>1147</b>	<b>48.9</b>	
Private				<b>16</b>
PA	31	205	<b>15.1</b>	
PB	33	195	<b>16.9</b>	
<b>Total, PU</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>400</b>	<b>32.0</b>	

Table 5.36 shows percentage of graduating students that had high grade honours from the universities for the periods 2009, 2010 and 2011, with first class honours as the indices. The private university category appears to have the highest proportion of graduating students with high grade honour (first class honours) for the three years studied, with an average of 2.8% of its graduating students making this grade for the period studied. Based



on individual university analysis, PB has the highest average of graduating students with first grade (3%) for the period studied followed by PA with 2.7% of its graduating students making first class. The average percentage of graduates for the period that made first class honours in FA is 1.8%. The remaining three universities have 0.2% of their graduating students making the grade used as criteria for assessment.

Generally, under academic staff quality, the state universities put together seem to outperform the other university sectors. However, only one of the six universities under study, a state university, SB, met the required NUC guideline of 20% academic staff at the professorial cadre in academic staff mix by rank for each university in Nigeria. As shown in Table 5.30, the state universities seem to be doing better than other universities in this respect with average professorial strength of 24.5%, followed by the federal universities with average of 18.8% and then private university sector with average of 16%. Individually, SB, had the highest percentage (29.7%) of its staff at the professorial cadre at the time of study, followed by SA with 19.2%. For the federal universities, FA had 19% of its academic staff at professorial level during the period, FB had 18.5%. In the case of the private university category, PB has 16.9% of professorial staff in its academic staff mix, while PA has 15.1%.

#### **(ii). Performance in research and publications**

This measures how the academic staff contributed to knowledge through research and therefore, the strength of the universities in research activities. It is measured in terms of number of academic staff that made such contribution through publications of research findings for the period under review.

The federal universities seem to be doing better in this regard both individually and collectively than the state and private universities studied. From Table 5.31, the total number of academic staff that contributed to knowledge through research publications by the two federal universities studied for the years 2009, 2010 and 2011 are 843, 1148 and 1144 respectively, as against the state universities that have 3, 10 and 19 respectively, and private universities that have 70, 60 and 85 respectively for the years studied. The figures for private university type (PU), is accounted for by only one of the private universities assessed, SA. The second private university did not provide any record of research and publication activity during the periods. The least performance under research based on collective assessment of the universities under the different university categories is the state university category. However, individually, FB has the highest research publications

throughout the periods assessed, with a total of 2349 publications. This is followed by FA with a total of 786 publications. PA has a total of 215 research publications by its academic staff during the reviewed period; SB had a total of 19 publications, SA with a total of 13 publications. There was no record for research and publications from PB.

**Table 5.38: Number of Academic Staff that Published research findings and/or theoretical papers.**

<b>University Type</b>	<b>2009</b>	<b>2010</b>	<b>2011</b>	<b>Total for period</b>
Federal				
FA	139	410	237	<b>786</b>
FB	704	738	907	<b>2,349</b>
<b>Subtotal for federal (FU)</b>	<b>843</b>	<b>1148</b>	<b>1144</b>	<b>3135</b>
State				
SA	3	8	2	<b>13</b>
SB	-	2	17	<b>19</b>
<b>Subtotal for state (SU)</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>32</b>
Private				
PA	70	60	85	<b>215</b>
PB	-	-	-	-
<b>Subtotal for private (PU)</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>215</b>

#### **5.2.4. Suggestions from the Universities for Improvement on University Performance**

The administrative sections of the universities studied made some suggestions for the improvement of performances of the universities. Put together, these include improvement of university funding by government; having a transparent and committed leadership at all levels that is capable of maintaining peace and stability in the system; formulation of policies that would attract and retain staff and engaging in capacity building efforts through training and retraining. According to them, provision of more infrastructural facilities and conducive atmosphere including staff motivation would make teaching and learning more exciting and enhance university performance. Of course, staff have to be well remunerated, and research tempo increased within the universities by providing academics research grants to carry out one of the mandates of the universities, creation of knowledge.

### **5.3 Discussion of Findings**

Teaching, research and community services are the primary functions of universities. In their teaching role, they offer trainings and education necessary for high manpower need of the society and development of individual personalities, respectively. Their research functions help increase body of knowledge and solve practical problems of the society. Academic staff are considered central to the goal achievement of their institutions (Okebukola, 2006). This study of academic staff working conditions, organizational commitment and performance of Nigerian universities, focused on five broad aspects of working conditions (with the aim of finding out academics' level of satisfaction in these areas); the three primary teacher based indicators of university performance (to find out level of performance of the universities under the current working conditions of academic staff); and factors that would make the academic staff more inclined to stay in the universities (to find out factors or issues that would make them more committed to stay in their institutions); level of performance of the universities (to find out possible areas that might need attention in relation to the areas of needs of the academics); historical antecedents of the perceived decline in organizational commitment and university performance (to put in context and provide evidence of perceived decline in motivation of the academic staff and university performance).

The historical evidence provided by analysis of documents in chapter 2 tried to locate the origin and sequences of events that led to the perceived poor motivation of Nigerian academics, with the resultant organizational commitment and university performance

problems, as seen in, for example, brain drain situation (e.g. NUC, 1994; FME, 2003; Saint et al, 2003; Yaqub, 2007; Ibidapo-Obe, 2010; Okebukola, 2010) and declining quality of graduates (e.g. Dabalen, Oni and Adekola, 2000; FME, 2003). While the result of the analysis seems to suggest that issues concerning salary and other conditions of service, coupled with poor infrastructural and resource facilities are the major motivation areas of concern, as they were constantly mentioned (e.g. Nwabueze, 1995; Esenwa, 2003; Moja, 2003; Okebukola, 2005; ASUU, 2009;), their causes seem to stem from both internal and external historical context. Internal, in the sense of poor management by university administrators (e.g. Omoregie and Hartnet, 1995; Ekong, 2001; ASUU, 2004; Okebukola, 2005; Okecha, 2008) and external, as shown by, for example, educational policies such as on funding and other antecedents giving rise to them (e.g. Dabalen, Oni and Adekola, 2000; Moja, 2000; Saint et al, 2003; Okebukola, 2010) with the resultant licensing of private individuals to establish (hence fund) their own universities (e.g. Obasi, 2007; Erinosh, 2008; Akpotu and Akpochafo, 2009; Ajadi, 2010a). Therefore, the documentary analysis helped in understanding of academic staff working conditions, organizational commitment and university performance in Nigeria within the context of history.

The preliminary interviews conducted seem to highlight some of these issues and provided some clues as to the feeling of the academics about the current situation in their universities. It is of note from the interviews that though the issue of salary was mentioned as part of the motivational issues in the universities, as also seen in the documentary analysis, this was not emphasized as much as the issues of teaching resources and facilities. Also, work environmental issues such as office space and furnishing were constantly mentioned in both the federal and state universities used for the preliminary study. The responses from the academics during the interviews show that though pay and other welfare issues such as provision of staff school for staff children and some concessions for admission of staff children into the universities were mentioned, there was regular reference to facilities for work and the nature of office accommodation. Such issues have been identified in literature such as those of Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006); Dabalen, Oni and Adekola (2000) and others. Sometimes these issues were mentioned in a seemingly frustrating manner; and truly, from observation, the situations seem not to be so good in the two universities with regard to some of these issues. Hence, as reflected in the documentary analysis and literature review, the preliminary study appears to be pointing to the fact that the motivation problems among the academics in Nigerian universities seem to still have a long way of being over. However, the minimal reference to salary may

as well be due to the fact that the two universities used for the preliminary study had already started implementing the new salary structure, with higher pay scale, approved for federal university academics at the time of the study. Much of the complaints of the academics at that point in time had to do mainly with teaching facilities and other work environmental factors.

### **5.3.1 Perception about Working Conditions**

Part of the questionnaire survey provided information on the perception of academic staff in the selected Nigerian universities about their current working conditions. This has been done on a broad range of issues considered to be important to academic staff. The issues or items in the questionnaire were raised based on five broadly grouped factors/facets of working conditions: salary and fringe benefits (SAB), career and professional development (CPD), work environment (WE), teaching resources and facilities (TRF), and governance and leadership (GL) as indicated in the conceptual framework. From literature review, adequacy or inadequacy of these components of working conditions would have implication on academic staff satisfaction with their job, which has implication for their intention to remain in their universities (e.g. Porter, Steers and Mowday, 1974; Ukaegbu, 2000; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002; Ovadje and Muogboh, 2009). Literatures also suggest that if the academics are not satisfied and/or committed to their organization there would be the likelihood that organizational performance would be affected (e.g. Ostroff, 1992; Huselid, 1995; Arthur, 1994; Whitener, 2001). Analysis was also done on diverse categories of academic staff in the study coming from both the public and private universities. The results provide new information about how the average academic staff in the universities feels about his/her job. This will be useful for improvement of efforts in the area of academic staff motivation and perhaps help enhance their commitment and university performance.

The survey provides information on three major areas. One is that, on a general level, academic staff in Nigerian universities seem to show poor overall satisfaction with their working conditions. The implication is that the academics feel their interests are not taken care of by their employers (e.g. Peak Network Ltd, 2011; Wright and Davis, 2003; Tella, Ayeni and Popoola, 2007). It also shows that their performance and those of their institutions, and their intention to stay may be affected if these needs are not met as expected (Porter, Steers and Mowday, 1974; Ostroff, 1992; Ukaegbu, 2000). Overall, gender showed significant difference in satisfaction with pension scheme, but there was no significant difference in satisfaction between male and female academics with respect to

salary, access to loan, professional development opportunity, job security, promotion process, workload, access to computer and internet, participation in leadership selection, and governance and leadership. With respect to salary, Darrah, Hougland and Prince (n.d) also found no difference in satisfaction based on gender in the United States. For pension scheme, the chi-square significant result got shows that more males than females perceived their satisfaction with this factor as poor. This can be explained in terms of the cultural orientation of the domain of the research. Pension scheme act as security for workers through which they can take care of themselves, their immediate and extended families on retirement from employment. Again, men are regarded as the bread winners or heads of their families, that is, they bear most part of the family burdens. Therefore, there is every reason to expect that they would be the group affected more in matters concerning pension. To buttress this fact further, Dada (2006) found among public servants in Nigeria that to earn a living was the highest reason for working.

On the other hand, when the entire sample of academic staff from the private university sector used in the study was analysed, they showed higher and excellent overall satisfaction with their working conditions contrary to Egbule's (2003) report that academics from the private universities in Nigeria showed lowest satisfaction score with their job. The  $X^2$  test of significant for seven of the items of the questionnaire in the current research, showed significant results between the satisfaction of academics from the private universities and those of the federal as well as the state universities for most of the items. That is, the private university academics more than the federal and state university academics, found their satisfaction with the identified items higher. Only job security showed no significant difference in the satisfaction of academics across the three university categories. However, the academics from one of the private universities, PA, appear to have greater contribution to this overall excellent expression about working conditions in the private universities. The academics from the second private university, PB, showed poor overall satisfaction with poor scores for four out of the five facets considered, confirming Erinoshio's (2008) report that most of the staff in the private universities in his study were eager to find their way to other institutions due to poor conditions of service and other requirements for quality teaching and research. Second, while satisfaction level was high in all cases for career and professional development, teaching resources and facilities seem to be posing the greatest threat to satisfaction of academic staff in all the universities studied. At all levels of analysis done, it had the poorest score. This observation is in keeping with the findings regarding resources and facilities in Nigerian universities (e.g. Moja, 2000; Ofoegbu and Nwadiani, 2006;

Okebukola, 2006; Ogwuche, 2008). It is an unhealthy development because resources and facilities have been found to be an important factor in the career life of all teachers, including academics in the universities (Firestone and Pennell, 1993; Buckley, Schneider and Shang, 2004; Tetey, 2006; Okebukola, 2006). The implication is that, not only will the teaching and learning functions of the academics and their universities be affected, their research functions as well as their career progression would be at stake. Thirdly, academic staff in the two private sector universities used in the study rated their satisfaction with their working conditions higher than their counterparts in the federal and state universities. This outcome can be explained in the context of the ability of the private universities to maintain greater stability than their public sector counterparts (e.g. Uvah, 2005b). Those in the federal and state universities witness constant interruptions of academic calendar either due strike actions by staff or students' demonstrations for diverse reasons as noted in the document and literature reviews (e.g. Nwabueze, 1995; Esenwa, Jr, 2003; Ofoegbu and Nwadiani, 2006), a situation that is rare in the private universities. This could be the case when one recalls one of the descriptions of motivation provided by Ofoegbu (2004), whereby motivation is seen as any force that would reduce tension, stress and frustration; and indeed the finding by Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) that strike and school interruption were the highest influence on stress among lecturers in the public sector universities. Probably, the consideration of size as it relates to ease of manageability mentioned by Uvah (2005b; Okorie, 2009) is also playing out here. In this respect, the two private universities studied are very small in size both in population of staff, students, academic programmes run and land mass compared to those that comprised the federal and state samples, some of which run multi-campus system. Connected to this is the possibility that proprietors of the private universities are better able to cater for the needs of their staff. This is because of their strict adherence to established policy that emphasized carrying-capacity and their ability to charge sufficient fees (Uvah, 2005b), that could cover most of their staff needs and other operational costs. It may be the case since an institution that is financially stable implies that its funding is consistent, predictable, and adequate (Uvah, 2005b). In contrast, apart from their large sizes, the federal and state universities depend mainly on their respective government proprietors for funding (Okebukola, 2003; Uvah, 2005b; Obasi, 2007), and these funds have been noted to be highly inconsistent and inadequate to cater for most of the needs of their staff and students.

Career and professional development has the highest satisfaction score among all the factors studied, from the general level of analysis to the individual university level. This

seems to suggest that the university management in these institutions is paying good attention in this area. This is a healthy development considering the importance of this factor to both the employer and employees in any organization. Opportunity for career development implies that there is the possibility that staff feel a sense of belonging since they will be able to advance in their job and therefore, can be able to achieve their goals or potentials (e.g. Fitzgerald, 1992; Ismail and Rasdi, 2006?; Villegas-Reimers, 2003). The theory of motivation suggests that “factors that lead to positive job attitude do so because they satisfy the individual’s need for self-actualization” (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959, p.114) which is the ultimate desire of humans according to the Hierarchy of Needs theory. Invariably, this will also benefit the organization by way of employee retention and improved performance. However, considering information from the literature review, this result is unexpected; because mentions were made about decline and frustration in research effort (e.g. Okebukola, 2006; Omotosho, 2007; Chiemeké, Longe and Shaib, 2009). Probably, there has been increase in sponsorship to conferences and seminars. It could as well be that their ability to publish theoretical papers than empirically researched findings is partly instrumental to the high satisfaction with career and professional development.

Surprisingly, both at the general level of analysis and constituent university level, academics in the private universities rated their satisfaction with salary and fringe benefits higher than their counterparts in the federal and state universities. Why might this be so when extant literature tends to suggest that academic staff in public sector universities in Nigeria have more attractive conditions of service than those in the private universities (e.g. Egbule, 2003; Erinoshó, 2008; Ajadi, 2010a; Adekola, 2012)? Indeed, some lecturers in private universities wish to have salaries or conditions of service at par with the public sector universities even as observed in the qualitative section of the questionnaire. This unexpected outcome can be explained in the light of the delays and irregularities in payment of salary and fringe benefits noted in literature, experienced by academic staff in the government owned institutions. Further, other issues leading to constant agitation by public sector academics to make their salaries and other conditions of service attractive and comparable with other lecturers elsewhere (e.g. Ofoegbu and Nwadiani, 2006; Yaqub, 2007; ASUU, 2009; Okebukola, 2010) may have been sources of decline in satisfaction with regard to salary and fringe benefits.

The poor rating for teaching resources and facilities in particular in the three university types and all other levels of analysis is of note and not surprising. It confirms the



observation during the preliminary interview and what is in extant literature (Moja, 2000; Okebukola, 2006; Ofoegbu and Nwadiani, 2006; Okecha, 2008; Ogwuche, 2008) about the poor state of facilities in Nigerian universities. However, the private universities have higher rating of satisfaction for this factor. This again is not surprising as they try to maintain the carrying-capacity policy of Nigerian university regulatory body, the NUC. This is unlike the federal and state universities where, due to pressure on admission, facilities are over stretched than they could carry. Inability of the academic staff to have adequate materials and equipment needed for teaching and carrying out laboratory works was part of the report from the preliminary interviews.

Another area where very poor rating is observed on a general level is work environment. This factor was accessed in terms of workload, office space, co-worker-relationship, support services such as electrical power supply, water and transportation, and recreational facilities. Generally, the rating for this factor was low, but for one private university, PA, that had positive rating. The general result here confirms extant literature on such issues (Saint et al, 2003; Ofoegbu and Nwadiani, 2006; Obasi, 2007; Erinosh, 2008; Okebukola, 2010). The complaints during the preliminary interviews about the inadequacy of some of these factors also, seem to confirm this fact. These factors, apart from affecting the quality of work of academics can affect their health, therefore, any inadequacy in this area is capable of sending negative emotions to the academics. It is important to understand the dimensions of work environment that are of concern to academic staff in the various universities. The exploration and understanding of these issues, perhaps would likely impact on the direction of human resources and administrative practices of the universities.

Understanding the feeling about governance and leadership activities in any organization is important in that such activities can either motivate or demotivate the employee. In the analysis based on the entire sample, the overall satisfaction score for governance and leadership is the second highest among the five factors studied, though slightly below the base score. It also has the second to the highest satisfaction rating after CPD for the public sector universities, with FA having the highest, but slightly positive score based on analysis of individual public universities. This goes to show that many of the problems in the public sector universities at the time of this study may not likely be largely attributed to management of the institutions based on the rating of the academics. It could possibly be explained in terms of funding pattern or ownership structure. The activities of government owned universities (federal and state) are funded mainly by their federal and

state governments, respectively. This heavy reliance on government sometimes delays execution of certain university activities due to bureaucratic processes associated with budgetary approvals in the public service. This fact was mentioned by one of the lecturers interviewed during the preliminary stage of the research. Much of the observations in literature have linked the origin of most of the problems in the universities, but not exclusively, to poor funding from the federal and state governments (e.g. Okebukola, 2005; Okecha, 2008). Again, the ability of the academics in public universities to unionize would likely enhance staff relationship with management which means (e.g. Ukaegbu, 2000), they are more likely to participate in most of the decisions concerning their job, there is likely going to be wider avenues for communication of information, all of which are important for worker happiness on his/her job. On the other hand, the general overall satisfaction score for the private universities with regard to GL is slightly on the excellent side of the satisfaction scale but second to the least score. However, PA has contributed mainly to the positive satisfaction. Literature indicates that private universities tend to have higher financial stability due to their ability to consistently charge sufficient fees that enhance their resource capacity or help overcome their operational cost. Hence, considering their small size, it is most likely that they will be able to cater for most needs of their staff as well as make profit, unlike the public universities that rely mainly on their government proprietors for fund (Uvah, 2005b; Okorie, 2009). Again, though there is no presence of union in the private universities, their small size may likely make them more manageable and hence, create environment that permits closer interaction between management and staff, easy flow of information and feedback that create increased feeling of satisfaction. Therefore, it may be more possible for proprietors of private universities to provide fund for management to take care of some of the needs of staff than in the case of federal and state universities.

Mixed results were got when the analysis was done based on gender. For instance, analysis based on gender for the entire sample shows that male academics rated higher overall level of satisfaction with their working conditions than females. On the level of individual universities, while in some cases female academic staff show slightly higher overall satisfaction (as is the case for FB and PB), in others cases male academics indicated higher overall satisfaction. It is not possible for this study to explain why the mean gender responses differed among the universities, but reviewed literatures have also reported different results (e.g. Oshagbemi, 1997; Peak Network Ltd, 2011; Srivastava and Chabra, 2012). This disparity could be possibly explained in terms of differences in needs, expectations and work experiences of the female and male academics in the different

universities. This is in consideration that there are differing values based on culture or location, differing institutional policies on different aspects of academic staff conditions of service, as there are differences in funding patterns and variations in management of available funds. However, based on the closeness of the satisfaction figures obtained for male and female academics, the assumption is, probably, the work values of male and female academics in Nigeria are coming at congruent with each other. That is, female are placing greater value on work unlike previous perception that female academics in Nigeria have higher overall satisfaction with their work than their male counterpart (e.g. Egbule, 2003).

For age group, there also seem to be mixed results at the different levels of analysis, though, relatively, the higher age group seems to show higher overall score for satisfaction with their condition of work. Probably, the higher age group is meeting its expectations at work, having been able to adjust their aspirations to a more realistic level as explained by Hunt and Saul (1975) using 'modified expectation' theory. The higher age group probably, may have to make this adjustment due to their longer experience at work (which Hunt and Paul (1975) noted is a function of age, and therefore, better able to make realistic work expectations.

Generally speaking, academics with intermediate educational qualification, Master degree, have the lowest overall satisfaction figure in all the university categories analysed. This may be connected to the aspiration to reach the highest qualification, doctorate, which is being considered as the minimum qualification for lecturing in Nigerian universities. As a result of this aspiration, academic staff in this Master degree category are struggling to meet the required expectation for getting the doctorate qualification and this might result in lower satisfaction as they have to deal with the stress of limited resources and facilities. However, the doctorate qualification holders seem to have the highest overall satisfaction, which is contrary to the report by Gardner and Oswald (2002) that shows the satisfaction of highly educated people to be low, but agrees with those of Gurbuz (2007) who found positive relationship between educational qualification and job satisfaction and, Ghafoor (2012) who indicated that academic staff with PhD degree are more satisfied than those with Master, MPhil and Bachelor degrees.

Part of the findings of this study which shows that academic staff at the highest rank (Associate professors-Professors) have higher overall satisfaction level with working conditions at both the general level of analysis and university proprietorship level has been recognized before. Ghafoor (2012) reported that in Pakistan, Professors were more

satisfied than Lecturers, Assistant Professors and Associate Professors. The result also partly confirms the report of Oshagbemi (1997) who found job satisfaction of academics in UK to increase progressively with rank. On the other hand, in the present study, the intermediate rank grouping (Lecturer I to Senior Lecturer) has the lowest overall satisfaction rating at all the levels analysed. That is, the progressive relationship talked about by Oshagbemi with UK lecturers is not fully found in this study. The explanation for this may be related to the possibility that the highest rank, Associate professors-Professors, has reached the apex of their career which goes with higher entitlements in terms of pay and other conditions of service. The intermediate group is still struggling to meet the expectation for promotion to this higher rank group in terms of research and publication and other conditions necessary for promotion to higher level. Therefore, they are still struggling with the challenges of inadequate facility for research and other conditions important for career advancement.

### **5.3.2 Factors Important for Personal Growth**

Some of the key findings in this section are worth mentioning. Firstly, in a relative term, themes helpful for personal growth seem to be the same across the six universities, although at different levels of emphasis. Secondly, training, education and development and, opportunity for research and publication appear to be the most highly mentioned themes helpful for personal growth of academic staff across the six universities. Thirdly, issues concerning workload and stress though mentioned across the six universities, the two private universities have the highest proportion of their academic staff making reference to them, especially PB, than the federal and state universities. Fourthly, in the six universities, issues connected with salary and fringe benefits and governance and leadership have the least proportion of academics making reference to them as important for their personal growth across the six universities studied. Fifthly, issues connected with the factors career and professional development, followed by teaching resources and facilities, and work environment seem to be more commonly mentioned by the academic staff from the six universities as important for their personal growth.

That the majority of the academics regarded most of the factors related to their career and professional development and also facilities as important for their personal growth is explainable. Extant literature tends to suggest that works that draw on skills of employees have high degree of personal meaning to them. As such, in relation to the finding by Ovadje and Muogboh (2009) on motivation in Nigeria, these issues when present would likely be important sources of motivation to the academics to stay and to perform. Again,

as seen from the theory of Maslow (1943), it would be to the interest of the employees (and also their employers) to develop their skills to enable them advance in their career towards self-actualization. Further explanation to the implication of this is provided by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1993, p.114) who noted that factors that lead to positive attitudes in the job (such as remaining in the job and performance) do so because “they satisfy the individual’s need for self-actualization” in the job. They also indicated that a factor such as advancement or promotion is an indication of professional growth. In relation to the high reference to issues dealing with career and professional development found from the present study, it is understandable to assume that the aspiration of most, if not every lecturer in the university is to grow progressively to the optimum rank of a professor. From the general analysis (Table 5.6) and in most of the individual university analysis that followed, the top five issues mentioned by the academic staff are very crucial in the actualization of this aspiration. They are all relevant indices to the academic staff pursuit of career and professional development. There is need for academic staff to improve themselves both in teaching and research skills which are part of their primary responsibilities and imperative for their professional advancement, for them to be knowledgeable enough to teach students (Okebukola, 2006; Ismail and Rasdi, 2006). Training, education and development, which are the most frequently mentioned themes in the research, help in acquisition of skills and exposures needed by the academic staff job to enable them do their work. Theoretical review of literature also indicates that training, whether formal or informal can influence employee development because of its influence on employee skills (e.g. (Huselid, 1995). However, as Huselid further noted, the effectiveness of these skills would be limited if the employee is not motivated to perform. Therefore, the ability of the academic staff to excel in their work also requires that they have the needed facilities and right environment such as adequate office space, teaching and research materials, internet supply, regular supply of power at least in the laboratories and workshops, reduced workload and stress for good health and to conduct research. These are necessary for them to be able to effectively achieve success in teaching and research that would enhance their achievement, and advancement in their career. This three-worded but deep response: “Research. Purely research”, from one of the respondents in one of the private universities, underscores how important research is in the career life of academics’. Research and publication is important for career advancement and improvement in teaching quality (e.g. Ismail and Rasdi, 2006?). Achievement in this area enhances opportunity for promotion of the academics. The power of promotion to raise the job satisfaction of an individual is often related to feeling of growth, recognition,

achievements, responsibility (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1993). Rise in career of academic staff finds expression in ranks, resulting in increase in salary and benefits (Archibong, Bassey and Effiong, 2010) which is not obtainable without considerable effort in teaching and research and publication activities. Increase in salary and fringe benefits helps in increasing the financial security of the academics so that they would be able to live a more comfortable life and also save for the future.

Further, to produce quality research requires that staff have adequate library and laboratory facilities, and good ICT facilities. Of course, the academics need time outside teaching to conduct research and write papers for publication. With high workload in teaching and administrative functions, the area of research would be affected negatively. This has been mentioned in literature by scholars such as Okebukola (2006) as one of the factors affecting research production in Nigerian universities. The ability of academic staff to progressively reach the different levels towards professorship gives the lecturers' sense of achievement, confidence, relevance, prestige, recognition, importance. According to Herzberg and colleagues research on 'Motivation to work', most frequently, when respondents reported that they are happy, they related it to events that show they are successful in performance of their work and to the "possibility of professional growth" which leads to the satisfaction of their need for self-actualization (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1993, p.113).

The above section and the question that gave rise to it are important in understanding some of the reasons in literature why many Nigerian academics left the university system for other jobs elsewhere. You will recall that the NUC (1994) Committee on brain drain in Nigerian universities defined brain drain as the exit of considerable number of Nigerian lecturers and senior non-academic staff from the Nigerian university system "in pursuit of self-actualization". It is quite reasonable to assume here that the large scale movement resulted because the lecturers or academics felt the situation in the universities that period would not be conducive for them to grow professionally and otherwise. Hence, in order to deal with the organizational commitment problem, it is important to understand the growth-related issues in the universities with respect to academics. Therefore, it is important to find out if what the lecturers state as important for their personal growth is at congruent with what would make them more inclined to stay in the universities. This will be helpful in any decision towards enhancing the organizational commitment of the lecturers in the universities.

### **5.3.3 Factors Important to Stay in the Universities**

Important findings in this section include: firstly, apart from the theme ‘religious /spiritual growth and environment’ which was mentioned by some academics in PA only, all other themes seem to run, though in slightly different proportions, across the federal, state and private university sectors studied. That issue concerning religious growth and environment appeared in the private university sector as one of the consideration to remain in the university has something to do with the interests of some or most of the Christian private universities in Nigeria, of which the two private universities studied represent. These issues which include morality and discipline are reflected in their mission statements and therefore, may be of great concern to some of the academics who work in these institutions. They are also, one of the reasons why some parents send their children to some private universities in Nigeria.

Secondly, themes having to do with opportunity for research and publication, training, education and development, increase in basic salary and allowances, welfare, seem to dominate references by academics in the six universities considering the number of references made to them by the respondents. That salary and welfare issues are important to employees and academics in Nigeria is not new. This seems to validate the finding by Dada (2006) that the need to earn a living was the most highly rated reason for working by public service employees in Nigeria, showing the importance they attach to money; and those of Ukwai, Uko and Udida (2013) who found high cost of living as the highest source of career stress among academics in tertiary institutions studied. High cost of living implies that there are likely to be pressure on their earnings by way of expenses to cater for their personal needs. Although, Herzberg included money as a hygiene factor, some other individuals found it as an important motivator because it is an avenue for achieving higher order needs such as recognition, for some people (e.g. Adair, 2009). In Nigeria, it was found as a motivator for performance among bank workers (Ajila and Abiola, 2004). In the context of Nigeria, as a developing nation with many of her citizens still living at subsistence level and with extended families, there is every need to believe that issues concerned with pay and welfare would be important consideration to the academics on decisions about remaining in their job. In this regard, issues concerning pay and welfare such as housing are likely to have economic, social and psychological implication to the average academic in Nigeria. They will help in improving the standard of living of the academics and their quality of life. These facts were also mentioned by Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) as part of the important consideration of academic staff while making

decisions about their job, which includes decision to leave. Pay issues such as salary/welfare are important enough to academics in Nigeria that it could result to stress when they are irregular or there is delay in payment as noted by Ofoegbu and Nwadiani (2006) or commitment problems as noted by Ubom (2002, in Fapohunda, 2012). Opportunity for research and publication and training, education and development are important for advancement and skill development of the academics. Since the academics have to publish in order to be promoted, these issues are no doubt important consideration for staying in the institution. Their advancement through promotion to higher ranks implies better financial security.

Thirdly, grouping and summing up the themes, career and professional development has the highest reference made to one or more of its themes followed by salary and fringe benefits, showing their importance in the organizational commitment of the academics in Nigeria. Fourthly, SA has the highest proportion of its academics making reference to one or more themes related to governance and leadership as important consideration in making any decision on whether or not to continue to stay in the university.

### **Discussion of the Analysis Based on Proprietorship**

When the responses from the academics were analysed according to their individual types or proprietorship, the state and private universities made the highest reference to the theme 'basic pay and allowances' as one of the things they would consider in decision about whether or not to stay in their universities. That is, if there is an enhancement in this area. Some of the comments from the academic staff from these universities were made based on comparison with what the academics in the federal universities are receiving, that is, they would like to continue to stay in their universities if they would receive salaries and allowances commensurate with what their federal counterparts are receiving. This seems to confirm the revelation by Johnsrud and Heck (1998) regarding unfair salary as part of the issues imparting on academics decision to stay or leave, and Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) that academics perception of their work life affect morale which, in turn, impact on their decision to leave their institutions. At this level of analysis, the federal university category had 'opportunity for research and publication' as its highest cited theme but with basic salary and allowance also on the high side; again supporting the report by Johnsrud and Heck (1998) in these areas. Research and publication are part of the requirement for advancement of academics in their profession and therefore, most likely to be an important predictor of their intention to stay or leave their universities.



That references to basic pay and allowances for the federal universities were least when compared to the state and private universities is understandable. From existing literature, the federal university sector seems to have the highest pay-scale than the state and private universities, state university academics supported by ASUU have been agitating to be placed on the same pay-scale. Though, based on extant literature, the academics from the federal universities are still agitating for higher pay that is comparable to those of their colleagues elsewhere - at least African average (ASUU, 2009), this result shows that pay is not necessarily the primary consideration that would determine their decision to remain in the system, even though it is important. On the other hand, this may be of considerable importance to the academics in the other university sectors who might feel cheated in terms of pay when all the academics in the entire university system have the same expectations or benchmark from the government and the public, judging from NUC guideline.

### **Analysis Based on Individual Universities**

Results from the analysis based on the six universities individually reveal that across all of them, the themes highly mentioned by the academic staff as concerns in taking decisions on whether to stay or leave the universities include adequacies of basic pay and allowances, welfare packages such as pension, health and housing; opportunities for research and publication, adequacy of opportunities for training, education and development. These are issues cited by high proportion of the academics in the different universities. They are also some of the issues pointed out by scholars such as Johnsrud and Heck (1998), Tettey (2006) that impact on academic staff and cause their departure from their institutions. The themes bothering on salary and fringe benefits such as basic salary and allowances and welfare packages have implication for quality of life of the academics as conveyed in their status in the society. Dada (2006) also found these as important motivators for performance among Nigerian civil servants. Opportunities for research and publication, and training, education and development opportunities reflect career and professional development prospects of the academic staff (e.g. Okebukola, 2006). These themes have implication for promotion of academic staff in their job. They affect skills, knowledge, and behaviour needed for effective learning of the different types of students (Ismail and Rasdi, 2006) and provide opportunity for advancement or growth of the academic staff in the job (Johnsrud and Heck, 1998). Career and professional development (CPD) therefore, provides opportunity for academics to actualize their ambition towards personal growth or successful advancement towards self-fulfillment. Opportunity to

learning, which has to do with CPD, is noted to be one of the factors that contribute to teacher commitment (Firestone and Pennel, 1993).

Also of note in this analysis is the issue of equity/respect/ethnic and state bias and fair treatment of staff. Reference to this is made in almost all the six universities except one, and is more with the public sector universities especially the state universities. The emphasis here has to do with ethnic, state and religious bias in assignment of responsibilities or appointments and promotion, with emphasis made to abolition of indigenization policy of one of the state universities. Specifically, there seems to be no reference made to this theme in PA, but is highly cited in FA and especially SA as among the factors that would determine whether the academic staff would continue to stay or leave their institutions. That is, they would be more inclined to stay if, for example, “there is equitable treatment of members of staff”, if there is “less inclination to ethnic and state bias”. Equity issues are important in employee commitment as revealed in literature review. Its appearance in the present research as important for organizational commitment of Nigerian academics reflects the finding of Ukaegbu (2000) in Nigeria, regarding it as a strong predictor of employee commitment.

References to issues concerning good leadership and adequacy of library support were also on the high side in SA. In terms of leadership, the academics in SA want the right calibre of people in positions instead of the “pettiness related to where someone comes from often adopted in assigning positions”. Those in PB want inclusion of young graduates in positions of authority to help in decisions that would help develop fresh brains. There is the feeling that the administration of the university is dominated by retirees. Extant literature reports the importance of leadership in motivation of workers and effectiveness of an organization such as the university (e.g. Alabi, 2002; Parisi-Carew and Guthrie, 2009). Workers want environment that encourages participation, recognition and where they will learn and grow. Lack of institutional support for academics personal and professional interest pointed out by Johnsrud and Heck (1998) and Tettey (2006) as some of the variables that impart on academics decisions to leave their institutions is evident from the above responses.

The theme ‘office space and furnishing’ is noted to be on the high side in PA while references to promotion are quite high in SA and PB. The motivational implication of poor work environment such as office space has been pointed out earlier by Chandrasekar (2011) who indicated that poor work environment affect employee morale with poor office space negatively impacting on work habit and poor furnishing portraying a feeling of

unsophistication. Generally, the concern for job security as one of the deciding factors about whether to stay or leave the university is highest with the private university sector and specifically, highest with PB. For example, one of the respondents in the private university made reference to “good management that guarantees job security”. This can be explained in terms of the differing employment and retrenchment procedures of the public and private sector organizations. These procedures, as rightly noted by Adekola (2012) appear to be well-defined in the public sector universities in Nigeria than in the private sector universities thereby offering the academics in the public sector universities more psychological security. Therefore, issue of job security is more likely to be of concern for private university academics than public sector counterparts in decisions about remaining in their universities. Moreover, there is poor or lack of presence of worker unions that can help fight for workers welfare in the private universities as it is in the public sector universities.

It does not mean that the issues listed in this paragraph are not reflected in other universities studied, but because of the type of comments emanating from some of the academic staff, it seemed appropriate to highlight where these themes were highly cited. For instance, a respondent in PB responded this way in terms of promotion: “... Timely promotion which is not all that forthcoming here. The staff are due for promotion since October 2011 and up till now, the university has not announced those promoted”.

Man is insatiable in his needs, perpetually wanting (Maslow, 1943). He tries to actualize himself in every aspect of his life and this self-actualization can be made possible by those factors of work that lead to positive job attitude (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1993). The above views seem to be related to the findings from the responses of academic staff in the survey. Being that work is one of the important aspects of the life of individuals including academics, there is the tendency for them to continue to strive towards actualizing themselves in their areas of specialty. Career and professional development (CPD) provides opportunity for academics to actualize their ambition towards personal growth or successful advancement towards self-fulfillment. Opportunity to learning, which has to do with CPD, is noted to be one of the factors that contribute to teacher commitment (Firestone and Pennel, 1993). Salary, which is also highly mentioned as factors important for academics’ continued stay in the university has been identified to be one of the issues that make a difference in decision of academics about their work life. The issue of salary in relation to academic staff in Nigerian universities is well documented in literature. In a developing country like Nigeria where poverty level is still

relatively high and extended family system highly practiced, there is need to believe that salary would be regarded as important for decision of academics to stay in their universities. High salary, which means higher financial worth, would help in enhancing the living standard of the lecturers. Their salary in relation to other professionals would likely affect their perception about their quality of life and hence their commitment towards their institutions. This is one of the observations of Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) whose study with the faculty members in a 10-campus system of public higher education in a western state found pay as one of the important considerations of academics on decisions about their job including intent to leave.

In their study, Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) identified three broad constructs that shape the life of faculty members and their intention to leave. These were listed to include professional priorities, institutional support (for personal and professional interest), and quality of life. These concerns are identified in literature as important for the growth of faculties in their work and described by Johnsrud and Heck (1998). From their definition, professional priorities have to do with ability of faculties to maintain autonomy for what they do in terms of teaching, research and services they provide, which seems to be gradually eroded by public demand for accountability, mainly evident by increased attention to workload; institutional support means the strength of relationship between faculties and institutional administration and how “the administration can address the external demand for accountability while supporting and preserving the faculty’s control over their work”; quality of life deals with issues such as salary, facilities, support sources like graduate assistants, library services, computing support, etc. and also their status in the eye of the public. Most of these indices are observed in the responses of participants in the present research as factors important for their continued stay in the university. For instance, the complaint about workload and time for research activities is put this way by a respondent in PB:

*“I seriously do not believe there is anything like a perfect working condition; not even in the first world. But I believe there is a good working condition, to me that is a situation where an academic staff is not over-burden with teaching; so as to afford more time for research”.*

Related to the above statement, another respondent from the same university wants “teaching conditions that allow the lecturer to attend to other important issues outside academics”.

Further theoretical insight into the findings from the survey is provided by the review by Latham and Pinder (2005) on the relevance of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory in developing countries like Nigeria, as revealed in the literature review. Relating the emergence of the themes to extant literature, the first two most frequently mentioned themes with regard to decisions on whether to stay or not to stay, that is, salary and allowances and welfare (with regard to issues such as pension, health, and housing) correspond to Maslow's lower order or deficiency needs, the physiological and safety needs respectively. These are regarded as hygiene factors in Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. This result seems to corroborate the finding by Dada (2006); Ajila (1997) mentioned by Latham and Pinder (2005) and another study by Ajila and Abiola (2004) that found extrinsic rewards such as salary and allowances among the most important factors motivating workers in Nigeria. Further corroboration of the importance of extrinsic factors such as salary among Nigerian workers is found in the work of Ukaegbu (2000) revealing extrinsic and equity factors of work as stronger predictors of employee commitment than intrinsic factors. The academic staff in the present study also want the listed variables or identified conditions to be fair and equitable in relation to what their colleagues in other organizations or elsewhere are getting.

This does not mean the higher order needs are not important for the academics to remain in the university, they are also significantly mentioned. For instance, 16.5% of the whole respondents made reference to issues regarding training, education and development, while 16.1% referred to opportunity for research and publication, 13.7% to promotion issues, all of which have implication for the advancement or growth of the academics in their profession. This development also corroborates what is revealed in literature as important for retaining academics in their job.

Recall that in the question on factors important for personal growth in question (3a), the key factors (those with high frequency) that top the list are those important for advancement or growth of the academics in their job, with training, education and development being the most highly mentioned followed by opportunity for research and publication. That issues related to training and developmental activities are among the top on the list tends to justify the revelation by authors such as Delaney and Huselid (1996), Huselid (1995), Collen (1994) that commitment practices such as training enhances employee commitment to the organization. For instance, Huselid (1995) found employee skills to be negatively related to turnover. This means that ability of an organization to encourage employee skill development through development activities such as training

and education may not only encourage employees to remain on their job but also improve their effectiveness which is important for performance of the organization. In the university environment such development can come through workshops, conferences, in-serving training and the like as listed by the respondents in the present research. They are cited as important factors that would help their personal growth as well as decisions on whether or not to continue staying in their universities, because these are factors that would help them develop and advance in their job. In Nigeria, Ovadje and Muogboh (2009) found among managers, that opportunity for development and advancement are the most relevant reward for retention and motivation to performance. It is therefore, necessary to consider these issues in formulation of motivational policies of academic staff as they also have implication for academic staff performance and performance of the universities.

The factors identified as important for personal growth and decision to stay appear to be the main things important for the academics in their job as these issues were repeated when asked about other things important to them; and their description of a 'perfect' working condition reflect one that has been able to provide these factors to a reasonable extent.

#### **5.3.4 Performance of the universities**

Graduate output indicates the ability of the universities to generate the manpower needs of the society. The quality of these graduates therefore, shows the quality of manpower generated for the multifarious sectors of the society and how well the graduates are prepared for life (Uvah, 2005a). The private universities seem to be doing better with regard to quality of graduates. Uvah (2005b) pointed out that the quality of university education delivery is linked to stability. That being the case, this finding may be linked to the ability of the private universities in Nigeria to maintain more stable academic calendar, better financial stability and better stability in governance than the public sector universities. Their small size and adherence to carrying capacity policy of the NUC makes them more manageable and stable. Therefore, their students are more likely to have access to good facilities, are less likely to experience disruption in their academic activities and hence have regular academic calendar that afford them the opportunity to take part in exchange programmes with other universities. All these are expected to enhance quality of graduate output and generate the right quality of human resource of the nation. Obadara (2012) also found academic performance of students in private universities to be higher than those in the public sector universities.

Teacher quality is believed to help in determining quality of graduates and school quality (Uvah, 2005a; Rivkin, Hushek and Kain, 2005). Again, the number of academic staff at professorial category also shows how the universities are able to attract and retain key staff. Carmeli and Tishler (2004) established that performance of an organization can be explained by some intangible organizational elements and the interaction among them. Among these elements was human capital whereby quality of human capital appears to be among the factors significant to the performance of the organization. For teacher quality indicator, only one university, a state university seem to meet the NUC's 20% minimum requirement of proportion of professorial staff to other academic staff in a university. The private universities seem to have the least proportion of their academics in professorial cadre. This cadre which is the apex of academic staff quality in the university is believed to have much experience to put into the system. This could be in areas such as mentoring of junior academic staff in the profession so as to acquire the right teaching skills for generation of quality products, and also to conduct research (e.g. Okebukola, 2006; Adeyemi and Osunde, 2005). The lower number of professors recorded by the private universities in this research could reflect the observation that most of them operate with minimal number of regular staff, with many of their staff coming from the public sector universities on part-time basis (Ajadi, 2010; Obadara, 2012). The low proportion of this category of staff might have to do with the perception that condition of employment in the private universities is not as attractive as those in the public sector universities (Ajadi, 2010; Adekola, 2012). Among the important issues in this regard is job security as pointed by Adekola (2012).

One would have expected that the federal universities would have higher proportion of their academic staff in professorial cadre since their condition of service is perceived to be more attractive than those of the state and private universities (e.g. Ajadi, 2010a; Adekola, 2012). That the state universities have the highest proportion of professors can be explained in terms of academic staff population. Professors in Nigerian universities belong to different states as their state of origin and some of them have risen through rank and file to their present status. The number of federal universities is limited so will be the number of academic staff from different ranks this university sector can accommodate. Also, the issue of federal character in employment of staff in federal government establishments which gives consideration to all the geo-political zones on equality criteria implies that only a limited number of these academics would find their way into the federal universities and probably grow from there to the rank of professor subject to vacancy. The rest are likely to remain in the states. It might as well be that the proportion of professors

got in the state universities is higher than those of the federal universities because they have less number of academic staff as a result of their smaller size, and the professorial indicator is calculated relative to total number of academic staff. From the result got, it means that, although the federal universities seem to have larger number of professors, this perceived large number is not proportionate to the total number of academic staff and size of the universities. On the other hand, the private universities being self-financing, probably, may be able to engage limited number of professors based on their financial capabilities. It might also be that their conditions of service that may appear less attractive (e.g. Adekola, 2012) made some academics including professors find themselves unwilling to pick up jobs or remain in the universities. This is why ASUU in some instances has decried the disparity in salary across the university sectors, because it makes cross-mobility of labour difficult. Therefore, despite their smaller number of academic staff, the number of professors is small and less proportionate to total size of academics. The quality of academic staff in the private universities in Nigeria with respect to working conditions is reported by Ajadi (2010a) as follow: “There is most likely to be dearth of academic staff in private universities in the future if their condition of service remains unattractive”.

From the data analysis above, it might seem that the state universities are more capable of attracting and retaining quality academic staff. This might not be so. The aspiration of some lecturers in the state universities as revealed in chapters two and three, and from the result of data analysis with regard to commitment to stay in the universities, is to have the same conditions of work with the federal universities. The implication of this is that if given the opportunity, they can move over to the federal universities. Therefore, the relatively high proportion of professorial staff seen in the state universities might be a case of pseudo-commitment reported by Adekola (2012) with regard to private universities.

When it comes to research, the performance of the private universities seem to be lower compared to the federal universities, but better than those of the state universities. The findings from the data seem to confirm the report that private universities in Nigeria pay more attention to transmission of knowledge than contribute to generation of knowledge through research (Erinosho, 2008; Ajadi, 2010a). Observation from responses to questions with regard to commitment reveals that the academic staff want conditions suitable for them to carry out research activities in order to grow. From the performance data on research and publication, it appears that one of the private universities studied (PB) outperformed the other (PA) in terms of quality of its staff and graduating students for the



three years studied. Based on the information available, this same university has no record for research and publication from its staff. There is limited explanation for this because of limited information and literature as regards functioning of the private universities. Probably, because they are privately funded and profit oriented, the universities might prefer to give priority to teaching in more lucrative courses that would yield more profit than pay attention to research.

### **Summary of the Chapter**

On the average, the academic staff in the studied universities have poor perception about their working conditions. The academics from the private university sector showed higher satisfaction with most of the work factors investigated. Though, the private universities had the highest proportion of graduates in high class honours, this did not translate to corresponding performance in research and publication. Male and female academics showed no significant difference in satisfaction in nine out of ten work factors statistically tested for significance, including salary. Only pension scheme showed a significant difference in satisfaction between male and female academics among the ten items. Satisfaction with job security showed no significant difference across the three university proprietorship, but satisfaction with pension scheme showed significant differences across the three university sectors.

Factors important for personal growth were the same as those that make the academics more inclined to stay, though in varying proportions. The five most prominent themes on factors important for the personal growth of the academics include (in order of magnitude of reference): a) training/education/development, b) opportunity for research and publication, c) facilities like well-equipped library and laboratories, journals; and also, d) reduced workload (both themes, c and d had the same frequency); and e) ICT. For factors that would make the academics more inclined to stay, the five themes prominently mentioned (in order of magnitude) include: a) basic salary and allowances; b) welfare issues such as pension, healthcare, housing; c) training/education/development; d) opportunity for research and publication; and e) promotion issues. Comparison of conditions with other colleagues elsewhere was mentioned as the reason for need to improve on some of the conditions for them to remain in their institutions.

The summary of the significant tests for the satisfaction scores of some of the issues investigated are shown below:

$df = 1, p = .05, \text{critical value} = 3.841$

**Gender: male and female, N = 248**

Item Tested	Result	Significant/Not Significant
Salary compared to others	$X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.01$	Not significant
Access to Loan	$X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.36$	Not significant
Pension scheme	$X^2 (1, N = 248) = 88.25$	Significant
Opportunity for Professional Development	$X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.3$	Not significant
Job security	$X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.02$	Not significant
Promotion process	$X^2 (1, N = 248) = 2.34$	Not significant
Workload	$X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.55$	Not significant
Access to computer and internet	$X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.47$	Not significant
Participation in leadership selection	$X^2 (1, N = 248) = 0.00$	Not significant
Governance and leadership	$X^2 (1, N = 248) = 1.51$	Not significant

**Proprietorship: Federal, State, and Private**

Item Tested	Proprietorship		
	Federal versus State	Federal versus Private	State versus Private
Salary	$X^2 (1, N = 171) = 9.9$ ; Significant	$X^2 (1, N = 166) = 2.13$ ; Not significant	$X^2 (1, N = 159) = 30.18$ ; Significant
Access to loan	$X^2 (1, N = 171) = 0.48$ , Not significant	$X^2 (1, N = 166) = 9.73$ ; Significant	$X^2 (1, N = 159) = 13.3$ ; Significant
Pension scheme	$X^2 (1, N = 171) = 9.9$ ; Significant	$X^2 (1, N = 166) = 28.52$ ; Significant	$X^2 (1, N = 159) = 59.84$ ; Significant
Professional Development	$X^2 (1, N = 171) = 5.06$ ; Significant	$X^2 (1, N = 166) = 19.89$ ; Significant	$X^2 (1, N = 159) = 5.14$ ; Significant
Job Security	$X^2 (1, N = 171) = 0$ ; Not significant	$X^2 (1, N = 166) = 1.83$ ; Not significant	$X^2 (1, N = 159) = 1.76$ ; Not significant
Promotion process	$X^2 (1, N = 171) = 0.09$ ; Not significant	$X^2 (1, N = 166) = 13.97$ ; Significant	$X^2 (1, N = 159) = 11.5$ ; Not significant
Computer and	$X^2 (1, N = 171) =$	$X^2 (1, N = 166) =$	$X^2 (1, N = 159) =$

Internet	5.97; Significant	0.41; Not significant	8.96; Significant
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The next chapter summarises the findings, presents conclusion from the findings and suggestions.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

So far, this study has provided background to the motivational problems in the Nigeria university system and its genesis. It has also reviewed theoretical literature related to the study, collected and analysed data from field study and consequently came up with findings that were discussed. This present chapter deals with the summary of the findings and conclusion reached therein with some suggestions.

Specifically, this study explored academic staff working conditions, organizational commitment and performance of Nigerian universities. The topic is chosen in the light of what could be regarded as crisis in Nigeria's university system which has given rise to a lot of motivational issues among its employees and has been perceived to affect the system's performance. As a stakeholder in the country's education system both as an employee and beneficiary through education of the researcher's children and wards, it is of interest to the researcher to contribute to the development of the university system which is expected to make the greatest contribution to the development of the country. Helping identify areas of needs of the academic staff that would enhance their commitment and university performance is part of that interest. In doing this, I have used a cross-sectional design, employing a mixed method approach comprising qualitative and quantitative methods in unveiling some of the research findings. In the whole process, informal preliminary interviews were first conducted to provide a little insight into some of the issues bothering the academic staff in their work. Documents were analysed to understand the historical background and dimensions of the commitment and performance problems in the universities, consequently, revealing the structural and managerial dimensions to the problems of commitment and performance of Nigerian universities. Self-administered completed questionnaires containing quantitative and qualitative questions were analysed showing the current perception of the academic staff about their working conditions, factors that would help them in their personal growth and those that would make them more inclined to stay in their universities. Also, information about performance of the universities in certain areas for the period 2009, 2010 and 2011 was investigated. The research is limited to the academic staff from six universities comprising the federal, state and private universities in Nigeria, chosen because they are said to have the greatest contribution to make towards achieving the goals of university education. It covers universities that have at least 10 years of existence from the two main geo-political zones

of Nigeria, Northern and Southern Nigeria. These were important in order to see that the universities have accumulated considerable experiences that could be comparable and to ensure that different parts of the country are covered. These processes helped in answering the central research question: ‘what and how did the perceived obstacles to academic staff organizational commitment and university performance in Nigeria evolve, and what can be done to improve it’. The study has been able to identify the nature and origin of the perceived motivational problem of the Nigerian academics and the resultant problem of ‘brain drain’ and decline in university performance. It has also found out the feeling of the academics in the universities studied about their current working conditions, identified the nature and types of work factors that could help them in their personal growth and those that would make them more inclined to remain in the universities. Though inconclusive, the study has caught a glimpse of the current performance level of the universities in some areas of teaching and research. In this chapter, the summary of the major findings and conclusions from them, and recommendations are presented. Limitations and areas for further research are also highlighted in this chapter.

## **6.2 Summary of Major Findings**

The main empirical findings from the research are treated in chapter five dealing with data presentation, analysis and discussion. In this section, the major empirical findings are summarized, showing how the researcher has been able to synthesize the evidences to arrive at a conclusion.

The analysis of documents helped in uncovering the historical antecedents of the commitment and performance problems in Nigerian universities. It revealed the structural and managerial dimensions concerned with the evolution of the perceived problems in the universities. These issues gave rise to decline in motivation of academic staff with resultant decline in organizational commitment. Many of the academics exited from the Nigerian university system for other organizations in Nigeria and abroad and, consequently, poor performance of the universities set in. For instance, decline in funding of the universities negatively affected activities of the universities in areas such as acquisition of infrastructural and material resources and also remuneration of academic staff. As revealed in the analysis, funding of universities in Nigeria appears to be mainly external, especially from government or university proprietors. The government funding policy and limited capability to the amount of funds released to the universities greatly affect the amount of money the universities have at their disposal to run their activities.

The informal preliminary interview offered a bit of insight into the current areas of concern of academics in their job and this insight was used to develop the full-scale study. Although financial issues such as salary were mentioned as concern, non-financial issues such as resources and facilities, office space, power supply, sponsorship to conferences, encouragement of seminars and publication, consultation on issues affecting staff and some others, were dominant issues expressed by respondents as working condition problems encountered in their jobs. All these are motivational issues capable of affecting academics' feelings about how they are treated in the workplace and their decision to stay.

On a general level, the academic staff expressed poor perception about their working conditions. Surveys of employees' level of satisfaction with their condition of work enables organizations understand their employees' attitude, opinion and motivation. It shows how much the employees feel their organizations are catering for their interest or needs at work and how the organizations are functioning. On a base mark of 55% on poor to excellent satisfaction, the general expressed level of satisfaction with working conditions is 51.42%. However, on factor basis, career and professional development appears to have excellent satisfaction score even at individual university level. TRF showed the lowest satisfaction score at all levels of analysis of perception about working conditions except for state university A (SA), where, though also poor, salary and fringe benefits appears to have the poorest satisfaction figure. Overall, the male academic staff recorded higher overall satisfaction score than their female counterparts while academics in higher age group seem to have higher overall satisfaction score. Highest ranking academic staff, that is those at the Professorial cadre, seem to have the highest overall satisfaction score than those on lower cadres.

The private university academics recorded the highest and excellent overall satisfaction score with their working conditions but this positive rating is accounted for by mainly one of them, PA, with PB showing poor overall satisfaction. The academic staff from the state universities showed the lowest overall satisfaction with their working conditions.

Prominent among the cited themes that would help the academic staff in their personal growth are opportunities for training, education and development; opportunity for research and publication; well-equipped library/laboratory facilities; reduction of workload/stress and availability of good information and communication technology. The identified themes are issues important for quality teaching-learning outcomes and research. They are issues relevant to improvement of skills and knowledge of the academics on their job for quality graduate output. The patterns of responses seem to be similar in almost all the

cases investigated and levels of analysis. Grouping of the themes revealed that themes concerned with career and professional development are more dominant.

In the case of factors that would make the academics more inclined to remain in the universities, themes that prominently emerged include if there would be enhanced and regular payment of basic salaries and allowances; availability of good welfare packages such as pension, health, soft loans, housing especially within the campus environ. These factors listed above are considered to represent deficiency needs within Maslow's hierarchy of needs motivational framework. Other themes highly mentioned by respondents include if there is opportunity for training, research and publication and; if there are good promotion prospects. The themes are important for the career and professional growth of the academics and hence, assume strong intrinsic motivation of Herzberg's intrinsic-extrinsic theory and Maslow's growth factors toward self-actualization. Equity issues were mentioned in all the universities especially in FA but more prominent in SA. That is, the academics indicated if there is fair treatment of staff in all respects, less inclination to ethnic, state and religious bias, and if they are treated with respect, they would be more inclined to stay in the universities. Equity issues were commonly seen with respect to references to improved salaries or conditions of services. It has to do with improvement in salary for the academics in the federal universities and making conditions in the state and private universities comparable to what obtains in the federal universities. There is also high reference to concern for good leadership; adequacy of library support in terms of quantity and quality of text books and journal materials, and other modern library materials. Concern is also expressed with respect to office space in terms of space and furnishing and internet connectivity. The academics would also consider issue of job security in deciding whether or not to stay in the universities. This is especially the case in the private universities, particularly PB. Comments about promotion as a consideration on whether or not to stay are high in SA and PB. This has to do with if the exercise is regular or timely. However, on a general term, the academics seem to agree that there is no 'perfect' working condition, but that there is at least a good working condition which is one that can provide some of the above needs to some level of adequacy.

As rightly pointed out by some literature on Nigerian universities, the private universities seem to perform better in knowledge transmission than in knowledge generation. While they (especially PB) relatively out-performed the federal and state sector universities in terms of teaching based indicators on quality of graduate output (but not on teacher

quality), there is no corresponding level of performance in terms of research and publication. Contributions in research and publication in the private universities came from only one of them. The federal universities seem to perform better in this regard.

### **6.3 Conclusions and Suggestions**

In the context of document and literature reviews, it is apparent that poor motivation arising from poor working conditions was the main cause of the problem of massive loss of valuable academics from Nigerian universities to other universities or organizations within and outside Nigeria. This resulted in decline of quality of performance of the universities. The origin of many of these perceived motivation obstacles are mainly structural, emanating from the decline of oil boom and consequently, devaluation of the Naira through Structural Adjustment Programme. This in turn affected government policy on funding of universities and reduced the flow of fund into the system. Other related structural aspects of the problem have to do with issues such as autonomy, high demand for enrolment, salary and conditions of service. These structural issues are beyond the control of university management. It is also clear that there are internal or managerial aspects of the problem. Such problems include poor leadership and accountability in management of government properties, and poor motivational practices. Some of the documents also highlighted some actions taken by government to improve the situation, yet the harsh economic condition which had taken toll on the universities seems not to abate.

Evidently, judging from the expressions of academic staff at the informal preliminary interview, there was still discontentment with working conditions among the academic staff of the selected universities in the study. With some policy reforms of successive Nigerian governments with regard to university administration, further investigation into the current situation in the universities through self-administered questionnaire, concludes that the overall satisfaction with working conditions of the average academic staff in the selected universities studied is still poor, with resources and facilities constituting the greatest source of this poor satisfaction. Further, the result of the statistical tests conducted suggest that, male more than female academics are poorly satisfied with pension scheme, but there was no significant gender difference in satisfaction with respect to salary. Therefore, in this research, it is concluded that there is no relationship between gender and satisfaction with salary. This also applies for access to loan, professional development opportunities, job security, promotion, workload, ICT, participation in leadership selection, and governance and leadership. It is also concluded that there is no relationship



between job security and university proprietorship/ownership among the studied universities.

It is further concluded that financial and non-financial work factors including those necessary for personal growth in the universities can have great influence on the intention of academic staff in the selected universities to stay in their universities. In short, factors important for their personal growth were seen to be the same as the ones important to remain in the university. The study provides information as to the nature of these work factors, showing that they reflect Maslow's (1943) deficient-growth needs, Herzberg's (1959) intrinsic-extrinsic needs and Adam's (1963, 1965 cited in Pritchard, 1969; Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004; Grant and Shin, 2011) equity issues. This information can be used to operationalize the opinion of the academic staff with respect to intention to stay. Aspects of these theories provide information that would not warrant financial burden to the university management, thus could be incorporated into any cost-effective development to increase satisfaction and commitment.

While on a general level, the academics seem to be relatively happy with career and professional development opportunities, they seem to still have complaint or unhappy with other aspects of their working conditions especially, teaching resources and facilities. Salary and fringe benefits, and governances and leadership issues seemed to be sources of major disputes in the universities according to most Nigerian literatures. Though poorly rated in the present study in almost all the six universities except one, PA, they appear not to be the major issues related to poor motivation of the academics in the current research, at least for the federal and private universities. Though the perception of the state university academics with regard to governance and leadership is poor, it is better when compared with factors such as teaching resources and facilities, salary and fringe benefits, and work environment. The state universities, especially SA, seem to have very poor perception about their salary and fringe benefits based on the overall satisfaction rating from the state university sector for this factor. In general, the academics from the state universities seem to have the lowest perception about their overall working conditions. This very low perception about issues concerned with pay in SA tends to be high enough to warrant prominence among the factors that the academics would consider in deciding whether or not to remain in the university. Academic staff from the other five universities equally see this factor to be important in their decisions about leaving or still maintaining employment in their universities, but SA has the highest proportion of its staff reflecting this in their comments.

It is also necessary to point out that the private universities administration should take note of the position of governance and leadership from the rating of their academic staff in this study. This factor has the lowest rating after teaching resources and facilities in the two private universities.

On the whole, it appears that only academic staff from one private university, PA, indicated high level of overall satisfaction with their working conditions, the rest five universities showed poor satisfaction. Academic staff in the higher age group in the three university sectors seem to be more satisfied with their overall working conditions than those in the lower age group. The academics in the professorial cadre (highest university rank) in the three university sectors seemed happier with their working conditions than those in the other ranks. Again, in all the sectors, Master degree holders seem to be academics that have the least perception about their working conditions. Looking at gender, female academic staff seem to be less happy with their overall working conditions than their male counterparts except in FB and PB where the females show slightly higher overall rating of their working conditions than the males.

From the information on achievement of the universities studied, this research concludes as reported by extant literature, that the private universities in the study seem to pay greater attention to teaching or transmission of knowledge at the expense of research or generation of knowledge. While the private universities seem to out-perform the public sector universities in terms of teaching with respect to graduate quality, this did not translate to corresponding performance in research and publication. For instance, only one of the two private universities in the study showed evidence of research and publication activity by its academic staff. However, the research is unable to make a conclusive statement about university performance due to limitations of the information provided with respect to the indicators by the universities. Also, there was the problem of unavailability of information on other indicators needed for a more comprehensive performance assessment.

The information from this aspect of investigation shows how the academic staff in the six universities feel about their working conditions. This will likely be helpful for the administration of the various universities in management of issues concerning their academic staff, especially, as regards provision of those things they need to be happy in their job.

For the question about needs for their personal growth and motivating factors to make them remain in the university, it is concluded from the findings that, factors that academics in the studied Nigerian universities consider important for their personal growth are the same as the ones important for them to remain in the university. Almost all the themes that emerged in the question on personal growth seem to emerge again in the responses for the factors that would make them more inclined to remain in the university, though at varying degrees. However, while opportunity for training, education and development had prominence among the themes cited for personal growth followed by opportunity for research and publication, basic salary and allowances and welfare issues appear to be the most prominent themes in decisions about to stay or leave, with training, education and development, and opportunity for research and publication equally highly cited as important. This underscores the necessity for the university administration to look into these and other issues listed under data analysis to minimize high exit of their valuable academic staff. Again, while teaching resources and facilities appeared to be the most poorly rated factor of working condition in the universities by the academics, and prominent, based on aggregation of its themes, as one of the factors important for the personal growth of the academic staff, this did not translate to high reference in terms of decisions about continued stay in the university. Rather, themes related to career and professional development and salary and fringe benefits were more referred as important in decisions about to stay or leave. These issues listed for personal growth and those for decision to stay appear to be the main things important to the academic staff in their job. These are part of the issues identified by Johnsrud and Heck (1998) to be important to academics and seen to be instrumental to their growth and retention. Generally, while the academics believe that there is no working condition that is perfect, they believe that there is at least good working condition which includes a situation whereby these issues highlighted above are provided to a reasonable extent.

### **6.3.1 Suggestions, Policy and Theoretical Implications**

It is suggested that the government and other proprietors of universities in Nigeria should find a way of making the salaries and other conditions of service more competitive and attractive in order to retain and gain more valuable academics. These will likely enhance the performance of their institutions. Literature suggests that organizations with members that are highly satisfied, who are committed, and equally, adjusted and not highly stressed should have higher levels of organizational performance (Ostroff, 1992) than when the reverse is the case. Also, that organizational productivity is likely to be achieved if

attention is paid to workers physical and emotional needs. In fact, Ostroff's findings from the study of schools justified this, with 12 organizational performance indexes found to correlate with satisfaction and commitment. Taking the above into perspective in consideration of the Nigerian universities studied in this present research suggests that, there is the need to make work of academics less stressful but more satisfying to enhance commitment and university performance. The findings from this study seem to reveal that generally, academics in Nigerian universities are still barely satisfied with the conditions under which they work. Though academics in the private university sector seem to have slightly higher satisfaction level with their working conditions, this does not seem to mean they are contented with their conditions. Some of them still expressed that they want salary and conditions of service at par with what obtains in the public sector universities, especially the federal universities. Drawing inference from the rating of the item on personal growth and some of their comments, it is obvious that the academics in these private universities want opportunities to grow in their job. They, therefore, want avenues for this made easily accessible to them through, especially, greater opportunity for training, education and development, opportunity for research and publication, reduced workload and provision of resources and facilities needed for work. While some of them, just as some academics from the federal and state universities, regard a perfect working condition as a "utopia", they believe that there should be at least "satisfactory" conditions; and such conditions could be where most needs of academic staff are met, including "an environment devoid of nepotism, egocentrism and politics", where the academics would be able to have freedom to express themselves, where there is a "Perfect working academic staff union", and one with more room for junior academic staff to take part in decisions-making. Issues concerning workload and research opportunity should be paid attention to seriously in the private universities based on the findings of this study. The respondents sounded as if they were frustrated as they mention these two issues. The academic staff in the private universities also want good leadership, especially incorporation of "able and efficient young men/women in positions of authority" who are capable of bringing on board innovative ideas that could impart positively on the work life of the academics. Note that governance and leadership was one of the factor that had the least satisfaction rating in the two private universities. Therefore, making governance and leadership more participatory will be worthwhile. Mentoring of junior academic staff by senior ones as pointed out by a few academic staff would be helpful in building up high quality academic staff in the private universities. Since there seems to be limited number of academics in these universities with Doctorate degree and few professorial ranking

ones, the following comment by a respondent in one of the private universities on this matter becomes important: “Mentoring of junior staff by senior staff: a top-down approach to soliciting a mentoring relationship as against the dominant bottom-up, i.e where junior staff pursue the seniors to no avail”. Therefore, the management of these private universities, and indeed other universities, should find a way of improving mentoring activities in the universities. This would likely enhance the upward mobility of their academic staff as future leaders and impart skills that could help the institutions move forward in the performance of its educational functions.

The kinds of comments highlighted above necessitate the need for management of these institutions and other universities at large to look into the possible avenues that can help their academics achieve their aspirations, gain their commitment and invariably help achieve institutional goals through improved performance. Motivation theories like those of Maslow and Herzberg suggest things that organizations can do to help self-actualization of their staff. Based on the perspectives of the theories, self-actualized employees are likely to work at their maximum creative potential. Therefore, it appears sensible for managers of organizations to help their staff realize their needs at work. Greenberg and Baron (2003) pointed out some of the things organizations can do to satisfy various needs (deficiency and growth needs) of their employees. These include promoting healthy workforce which acts as incentive to satisfy employee physiological needs; providing financial security, example through provision of low interest loan to help satisfy safety needs in time of financial security; providing employees’ opportunity to socialize; and, recognizing accomplishment of employees to boost their esteem need. All these were hinted and implied from the responses of academics in the present research. While applying control measures such as rules, sanctions and monitoring to increase efficiency, university management should not lose sight of high commitment practices such as fair appraisal of staff, staff participation in decision-making, support for training and socialization activities which have been noted to increase effectiveness and productivity.

The comments made so far also apply to the federal and state universities as some of their academic staff also made reference to some of the issues pointed out above with respect to private universities. Issues bothering on equity, fairness, ethnic and religious bias, indigenization policies are of concern for academics mostly in the public sector universities in deciding whether or not to remain in the universities. These are important areas that the university administration can look into and take appropriate steps that can better the lot of their academics and also benefit the universities. It is recognized that most

state universities are built to cater for the interest of their various state indigenes. However, while accommodating this interest, it is also advisable they do not alienate non-indigene staff whom they engaged to help them better the lots of their so-called indigenes from the scheme of activities that would better their own future. This can result to abandonment of the universities. Even as revealed in this study, academics in the private sector appeared to be happier than others with respect to their conditions, yet, some of them said they would be more inclined to stay in their universities if conditions of work are improved and comparable to those in the public sector universities. This shows that equal and fair treatment is important in the work life of employees.

Although issues such as enhanced salary and some fringe benefits are highly listed as factors important to remain in the university, incidentally, they are beyond the powers of the university management especially in the public sector universities. However, through good leadership and human resource practices, university management can increase academic staff intention to remain in the university by increasing recognition, appreciation or respect; providing them fair opportunities to be involved in activities that would help them in their professional growth; and making staff more involved in decision-making through participation in committees, leadership opportunity and leadership selection and related matters. For instance, a respondent from one of the state universities, after giving the poorest score (like many other respondents in the university) to a question on how transparent and participatory leadership selection in the university is, wrote beside the score "It is based purely on V.C. Appointment". This type of negative feeling does not require financial involvement to correct but a matter of self-reflection to find out if the status quo is ideal for the success of the university.

As earlier stated, most of these issues in the universities are basically structural, hence, beyond the financial capability and powers of the university management to deal with. However, management can focus on low-cost aspect of increasing motivation or satisfaction of staff. This is one of the relevance of Herzberg's hygiene-motivation theory which provides organizations with tools that can serve as part of good motivational practices. Such issues as fairness in relation to training and development opportunities, promotion opportunity as regards fairness and timely implementation, workload, participation in decision, recognition or appreciation of one's effort, less ethnic and religious biases, and so on, as identified by the respondents can be easily handled by management to increase satisfaction and commitment of academic staff. The public sector universities seem to be in dire need of these aspects of motivational factors.

This study, therefore, has practical implications by providing the universities information that they can utilize to their own advantage. Though the information on performance is not comprehensive enough for conclusive judgments, the little that is provided is a pointer to the institutions concerned as to how they fared in the areas used for assessment and therefore, warrant improvement where necessary. The opinion of the academic staff with respect to the issues treated in this study can be incorporated into the strategic planning of the universities to see how achievement could be enhanced.

#### **i. Theoretical Implication**

Conceptually, this research concludes that Maslow's deficiency-growth needs (1943), Herzberg's (1959) intrinsic- extrinsic needs and Adam's equity issues are relevant in understanding working conditions, organizational commitment and performance issues in the Nigerian universities studied. Taking as a whole, both deficiency (Herzberg's extrinsic) and growth (Herzberg's intrinsic) needs of Maslow are important to the academics in their work, for growth and to remain in the universities. However, while the academics appear to be interested in personal growth, factors concerned with Maslow's deficiency needs (pay/welfare issues) seem to be dominant or the main priority in the list of factors that would make them more inclined to remain in the universities, if provided or improved. Most often, the concern about these factors has to do with their comparability in relation to others in other universities. This could imply that the academics are yet to satisfy their basic physiological and safety needs, for example, which according to Maslow's motivation theory must be met before an individual develops needs that are higher up in the hierarchy towards self-actualization. Noltemeyer et al (2012) in literature reviewed earlier found that there is a positive relationship between these deficiency needs and growth needs. He found that achievement was negatively affected by insufficiency of the deficient needs. That is, the academics would need to satisfy their need for food, thirst, shelter, good health, and others before they would be able to concentrate or feel comfortable enough to perform towards achievement in the various growth areas in their job. Since achievement of the universities to a greater extent depends on the performances of the academic staff, it implies that the performances of the universities are likely to be affected negatively if these needs are limited. Satisfaction with working conditions may not imply feeling of contentment or perceived fairness with work situation, and may not necessarily lead to commitment to the organization. Equity factor is of immense consideration especially with respect to salary. This is in consideration of the private sector academics who rated their conditions higher than the public sector university

academics but are still looking for conditions, especially salary, that is comparable to what obtains in the public sector universities.

One of the main contributions of this study lies essentially in its ability to add to our understanding or knowledge on issues considered critical in the discourse about effective university education delivery as it relates to human resource management. This time, it is in connection with the job of academic staff in selected Nigerian universities. Staffing is recognized as one of the indicators of quality. While it is important for the universities to engage the right calibre of academic staff, it is also important that they are kept motivated in order to gain their commitment for organizational improvement. As the demand for quality education continues to increase so are the pressure to acquire new skills, more training, better facilities and better leadership to motivate and retain valuable academics in Nigerian universities. Therefore, it is the challenge of the university administrators both in Nigeria and elsewhere to utilize the information from this study to their best possible advantage where necessary.

## **ii. Relating the Conclusion to the Conceptual Framework**

The main aim of the study was to explore the working conditions of academic staff in Nigerian universities, ascertain factors important for their organizational commitment, and investigate performances of the universities under the current working condition of the academics. The objectives of the study were to identify the issues seen to be instrumental to the perceived decline in academic staff commitment and university performance in Nigeria, and how the problems evolved through document analysis; investigate the perception of academics with their current working conditions and factors that would make them remain in the university using questionnaire; and level of performance of the universities using a checklist of question. In the study, working conditions were conceptualized in five broad areas: salary and fringe benefits, career and professional development, work environment, teaching resources and facilities, and governance and leadership. University performance was conceptualized in three indicator areas: teaching, research, and community/public service. Organizational commitment is conceptualized as commitment to stay.

1. The current research made important findings and lends support to the understanding that different situational variables in the workplace motivate employees in a particular organization, and that these factors vary depending on the type of organization and its location. For instance, different aspects of working



conditions has been used to investigate and explain work motivation by authors such as Gallstedt, 2003; Parisi-Carew and Guthrie, 2003; Ofoegbu, 2004; Ajila and Abiola, 2004. These authors have provided a link between working conditions and motivation as done in the current research. Following from this, the current study has shown that, there are varieties of working condition issues that will affect the decision of Nigerian academics to stay in their job. These issues represent their needs for personal growth, and those to take care of their physiological and safety needs which were more referenced. Many of these factors found are similar to those mentioned by authors such as Johnsrud and Heck (1998) and Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) with regard to academics. Further, the research has added to the findings of Ajila and Abiola (2004), Dada (2006) who found extrinsic and financial reward (deficiency needs) important in motivating Nigerian workers. Noltemeyer et al (2012) found a relationship between deficiency needs and growth needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. While Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory arranges these needs, Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory provides the nature/describes the type of needs, and Adam's (1963, 1965, cited in Pritchard, 1969; Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004; Grant and Shin, 2011) equity theory describes how equitable these needs are distributed in relation to other colleagues. These three theories are implicated in the conceptual description of the outcome of the current study. In identifying what would make them more inclined to stay in their universities, many of the academics, apart from listing what they want, went further to refer to what obtains in other universities. This also goes to suggest that, perhaps, one theory of motivation may not adequately explain motivational issues in an organization.

2. Working conditions and motivation have also been used to explain and investigate commitment (e.g. Firestone and Pennell, 1993; Ukaegbu, 2000; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002; Porter et al, 1974; Steers, 1977; Curtis, Upchurch and Servert, 2009). The reports from these authors suggest that work factors, due to their link with motivation affect employee commitment or willingness to stay. They also suggest that the values employees place on some of the work factors has implication for commitment or willingness to stay (Elizur, 1996; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002). Again, the motivating effects of these work factors vary among organizations and geographic location (e.g. Roe et al, 2000; Latham and Pinder, 2005). This is because, since there are differing cultures there are likely to be differing behaviours, and consequently different managerial practices are implied (Hofstede,

2000; Weir, 2005). In the current research, one would have expected that academics, who are interested in personal growth or self-actualization, would be more concerned with growth or intrinsic factors that would lead to progression towards self-actualization in their consideration about remaining with their universities. From the result of the study, although, such intrinsic factors were high, the more prominent issues had to do with the deficiency or extrinsic factors of welfare and salary. Therefore, the result from the current study has added to the existing literature on link between working conditions and motivation, and the relevance of the identified factors in getting workers committed in Nigeria. Most of the working conditions factors which the academics in the current research identified as important in their decision on whether or not to stay tally with those identified by Johnsrud and Heck (1998) as broad concerns of academics that predict their decisions to stay or leave. The predominance of some factors listed in the current study suggests that there is a high degree of need for extrinsic motivation among the academics from the universities studied. Therefore, administrators of these institutions should pay great attention to issues of salary and welfare in addition to development opportunities. Also, issues concerned with unfair salary as noted by Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) as concern of academics on decisions about their job is found to be equally critical in the decision of academics in the current study on the matter of organizational commitment to their universities. The study further lends support to the observation by Cohen (1992) who found salary to have strong relationship with organizational commitment of professionals. It is also in line with that of Yaqub (2007) who pointed out that most skilled and highly professional sections of an organization would be the ones to react in the form of brain drain in case of an economic trough which has affected their condition of work including eroding of the value of their real wage. The research finding also implies that the motivator versus hygiene dichotomy of Herzberg may not fully apply in Nigerian situation.

3. Working conditions, motivation and organizational commitment have also been used to explain job and organizational performance and turnover (Ostroff, 1992; Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Becker et al, 1996; Ripley, 1999; Aluko, 2003; MacPherson and Pabari, 2004; Ajila and Abiola, 2004; Afful-Broni, 2012; Akinyele, 2010). They suggest that poor motivating effect of different factors in the workplace can lead to organizational problems such as turnover, poor productivity and poor organizational performance. Such will be the case when even

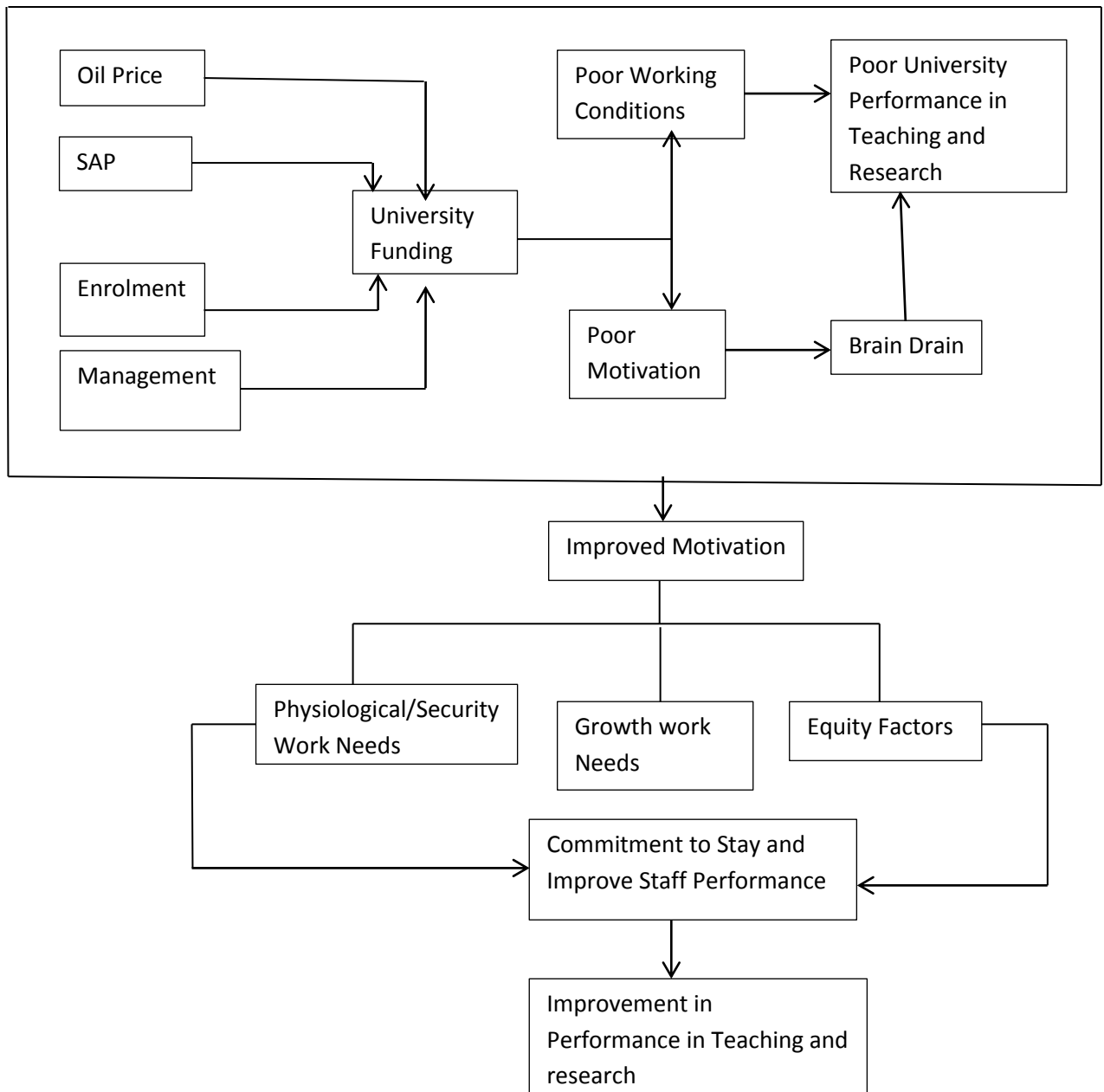
the highly skilled employees are not motivated or getting what they want from their job (Huselid, 1995; Yaqub, 2007). Therefore, as shown in the conceptual framework, part of the findings from this study has support for this link. Some of the respondents stated that they want motivation in certain conditions of their work which includes salary, welfare issues, opportunity for training and research. Also, they want some of these factors to be comparable to what their colleagues receive elsewhere. When some of these factors are available, the academics would be motivated enough to stay and teach to help the universities produce quality graduates to improve the manpower needs of the multifarious sectors of the society, produce quality research that would provide more wealth and comfort for the society, and engage in community services that would help improve the conditions of their immediate community and beyond.

4. Conceptual literature also identified some relationship between satisfaction with some work factors and some demographic variables such as gender and type of organizational ownership. For instance, conflicting results had been found between gender and some work factors (Oshagbemi, 1997; Srivastava and Chabra, 2012; Ghafoor, 2012; Kaiser, 2007; Darrah, Hougland and Prince, n.d). In the current study, nine out of the 10 work factors tested showed no significant difference, including salary. Only pension scheme showed a high significant gender difference,  $X^2 (1, N = 248) = 88.25, P = .05$ . The views of Wright and Davies (2003) on differing satisfaction of public and private sectors employees were partially confirmed based of some work factors but satisfaction with job security did not show any significant sectorial differences between the federal, state and private universities academics in the present study. The results from the present study on personal growth and organizational commitment show that both the public and private sector academics will be motivated by similar factors in Nigeria.
5. The conceptual framework of the research shows that organizational performance is multi-dimensional in character. This conception can be inferred from the works of scholars such as Ostroff (1992); MacPherson and Pabari (2004); Carmeli and Tishler (2004); Uvah (2003, 2005a); Okebukola (2006). It is also inferred from the works of some of these authors that performance is goal related and hence, its assessment should be based on the objectives or goals of the organization in question (Ostroff, 1992; MacPherson and Pabari, 2004; Uvah, 2003). Hence, in the current research, the conceptual framework depicts performance indicators related to the goals of Nigerian universities. However, in the current study, only teaching

and research indicators in the areas of quality of graduates, number of academic staff at professorial cadre, number of research publication were used. The inability of all the universities studied to provide information in some other goal areas including community services caused the exclusion of some of the aspects of performance originally intended to be covered. However, based on the available information on performance, and the information on satisfaction, the very poor rating of teaching resources and facilities and the mention of some of these factors as issues important to the academics seem to be reflected in performances in teaching, and research and publications. This can be seen in the proportion of graduates with high grade honour and volume of research publications for the three year periods covered. Some of the factors listed by the academics such as classroom space; quality library, laboratories and books, ICT facilities, and others are indicators of quality (Uvah, 2003, 2005a) and therefore, relevant to the achievement of the institutions in teaching and research.

Based on the above understanding, the conceptual framework used in the research is extended with the findings from the study. The framework is reconceptualised in figure 6.1. below:

**Figure 6.1: Reconceptualised Framework of the Study**



### iii. Contributions to Knowledge

1. As a concept that involves psychological attachment, commitment helps understanding of behaviour with broader social implication, and would likely help explanation of work behaviour in societies that are more collectivist in perspective (Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe, 2004). The present research has been able to identify important needs of academics in Nigerian universities that could guarantee a positive disposition towards remaining in their universities. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the present study is an area that has not been explored in the context of

Nigerian, a developing and collectivist society that emphasises family and collective or interdependent work group goals. Therefore, the study is original in identifying issues which can serve as measures of the needs of academic staff in Nigerian universities in order to remain in their institutions. Consequently, the study provides a framework by which Nigerian academics build their expectations from work which can be studied further in more depth using more universities, and by extension, outside academia. It can as well serve as a benchmark for related studies in other African institutions of higher learning. This is in recognition of the fact that most of the related works in literature are studies conducted in the western culture that is individualistic in orientation as against African collectivist cultural orientation. Therefore, the existing measures from the studies from these western cultures may not adequately represent the population in the current study or other less developed countries in Africa.

2. The study has also added to our understanding of the theoretical explanation of needs that drive behaviour at work. The results from the present study show that there is not likely to be a perfect theory of motivation universal enough to explain what the academics in the Nigerian universities studied want that drive their behaviour towards commitment to their institutions. In other words, more than one theory of motivation is needed to understand, explain and deal with the motivation problems in the universities studied. Whereas Maslow's Needs Theory provides information on the level of the needs that the academics want to keep them committed to their universities, Herzberg's two-factor theory describes or provides information as to the types of needs. On the other hand, the equity theory of Adams provides information about the fairness or how just these needs that drive behaviour, such as exit from the organization, should be in relation to relevant others. The relevance of equity theory in financial compensation (Pritchard, 1969) is also revealed in this research. If not for equity reason, why should academics from the private universities who rated their satisfaction with most

of the work factors including for salary higher than those from the public sector universities still request for salary that is comparable to what their colleagues in the public sector universities are getting for them to stay. Going further on this and also, in recognition of the findings of Ajila and Abiola (2004), and also that of Dada (2006), the result of the current study suggest that Nigerian academics in this study, just as other Nigerian workers used by the above authors, are highly extrinsically motivated. That is, they are highly externally regulated in their commitment to stay in their universities, although there is also high level of intrinsic needs. This is in contrast to the generalised belief that only intrinsic factors motivate individuals towards a particular behaviour at work. The extended family system orientation of Nigerian people may be possible explanation for the high interest in extrinsic reward. This is likely because it is only when they have enough material wealth that they will be able to take care of immediate and distant relatives. Again, wealth is a symbol of self-esteem and recognition in the country. In the present research, extrinsic factors (salary and welfare issues) were the prominent themes identified as important consideration on decisions about quitting the institutions. Therefore, conceptually, the study has been able to provide the theoretical implications of the findings, showing that deficiency-growth factors of Maslow, intrinsic-extrinsic factors of Herzberg, and equity issues of Adams are important in retaining the academics in the universities.

3. Methodologically, the approach to the study differed from other related studies. The combination of variables studied and steps followed were self-directed and not unique to previous related studies. Therefore, it has added to our understanding of the use of multiple methods and sources of information in order to obtain a more valid and comprehensive result. The study sequentially took steps that enabled clear understanding of related issues in the topic of interest and the conclusion therein. Through informal interview, it was possible to uncover some indicators of importance and relevant to the population of the study, which could be peculiar to

the societal domain of the study. These indicators were used as measures to understand what the academics are currently getting from their job (satisfaction) through a quantitative method. This understanding when compared with what they say they want with regard to personal growth (that was partly instrumental to the exit of many them from the university system in the brain drain phenomenon) and to stay, - done through qualitative means - provides information on need deficiency that can result in goal-directed behaviour such as exit from their institutions. Placing the work in the context of history through document review offers a pragmatic insight into the situation in the university system in Nigeria since its evolution which can be utilized effectively in addition to the research findings to effect a change and motivate individuals in the institutions. The incorporation of performance data goes to show the goal areas that are likely to be affected if the needed areas for improvement in the working conditions of the academic staff are not effectively addressed. Methodologically, the present study differs from related studies through the use of these sequential steps and combination of issues investigated. Again, the study has also added to our understanding of the multi-dimensional character of performance indicators, in this case, with respect to the Nigerian universities and the societal expectations from them.

4. The document review was highly informative. It provided exploration of University education in Nigeria and evolution of the perceived motivation problems that led to the perceived crisis in the system. The information therein is useful contribution towards understanding of issues that border on university administration and other related fields. Managers and administrators of institutions of higher learning within and outside Nigeria can tap into this knowledge and pragmatically take precautionary measures to prevent their institutions from falling victim of the same crisis. The review coupled with the findings from the primary field data makes the research relevant to scholars in variety of fields. Therefore, it can serve as a reference for scholars in such areas as industrial



relations, human resources management, educational management, organizational behaviour, historians, and some other related disciplines.

5. The study has also added to our understanding of satisfaction with working conditions and its relationship to some demographic variables such as gender and proprietorship of academic institutions. This reflects the situation in a developing country, Nigeria, where much of such studies had not been conducted before. It has been able to support the finding that gender factor for instance, is not a good predictor of academics salary satisfaction as reported in the work of Darrah, Hougland and Prince (n.d) in the U.S., though there was significant gender differences with respect to pension scheme. Based on statistical test between gender and 10 work factors in the present study, the study found gender not to be playing a great role in the satisfaction of the academics with their working conditions except for one, pension scheme. While there was no significant satisfaction difference between academics from the federal, state, and private university academics with respect to job security in the research, some significant differences exist between the universities categories with regard to some other factors tested, including salary. Knowing and keeping different categories of employees in an organization satisfied are important priorities of employers to avoid employee turnover.
6. Practically, the findings from this study can be utilized as a tool for building a reward or motivational strategy that enhance retention of key academic staff in the universities or domain of the study. Such strategy is likely to help the universities improve on the achievement of their goals. Since the determination of salary scale in the universities, especially the public sector universities, are beyond the powers of the institutional managers, this study has been able to identify cost-effective measures such as increase participation, fairness in issues of promotion, recognition, elimination of ethnic bias and indigenization policy, and the likes

which the management of the institutions can utilize to increase motivation and commitment.

#### **6.4 Limitations and Areas for further research**

Though this study is relatively robust in its investigation of issues in the universities with compelling results, the reader is advised to be cautious and recognize some limitations associated with cross-sectional data. As a cross-sectional study, it can only describe what the current situation is at the time of research and cannot follow what happens after. Caution should also be exercised in interpreting the performance data as there could be plus or minus in the figures provided that could be due to human error. For instance, the researcher is not certain if the information provided by all the universities studied on academic staff strength took into consideration or included the non-teaching academic staff and professors. If some of them did include them while others did not, this would possibly affect the performance figure for this indicator in one or more of the universities in relation to others. Also, the figure for research and publication in the case of private university sector is from only one of the two private universities studied. This research could not ascertain if the absence of information for this indicator in the submissions provided by the other private university means that its academics have no achievement in this area or it is just lack of up-to-date record. As noted in FA for example, during data collection, it seems some of the academic staff sometimes fail to attend to the request to submit information regarding their publications to the appropriate quarter for information update.

Furthermore, there are different measures of organizational performance. The current study incorporated just a few of them. Indicators such as student behavior, student satisfaction, teacher turnover, administrative performance, stability of academic calendar, and so on (Ostroff, 1992; Uvah, 2003, 2005a, 2005b) are all indicators for institutional performance and directly or indirectly affect performance of both academic staff and the university. However, these were not used in the assessment of performance, in part, because of the inability of some of the universities to provide information on some of them. Therefore, future research is needed that could incorporate these indicators in order to have a more comprehensive performance view for the universities. Further, the nature of data collected did not permit deeper statistical evaluative inferences to be made. This limits general application of the findings to the wider population of academic staff in Nigerian universities. Therefore, future research may consider finding out quantitatively, if relationship exists between the academic staff level of satisfaction with their working

conditions and performances of the universities with regard to the different performance indicators used. This is important since theoretical literature has pointed out that different measures of organizational performance would be sensitive to different levels of satisfaction (Ostroff, 1992).

The research cannot rule out the possibility of bias on the part of the respondents for the fact that some of the questionnaires were returned through staff of the universities, especially in the state and private universities. Further, the heterogeneity of the participants within the same university as well as across population of universities studied may also limit the extent of generalization and validity of the results. This is because, the different units or departments and faculties may have their own peculiar issues that may not as well be extended to their counterpart units or departments and faculties.

Another limitation of the research is the sample size. The data collection methods used in the research suggest use of comprehensive and diverse views of academics in the wider population of universities in Nigeria as the sample reflects geographic location (coming from both Northern and Southern Nigeria); ownership (involving the three categories of university sectors in Nigeria – federal, state and private); and composition of respondents (as all categories of academic staff are represented). This notwithstanding, the researcher does not claim statistical representativeness of the sample used in this study. Therefore, generalization of findings from this research may be limited. However, this does not mean that the outcome of the study is not usable. Methodological literature suggests that the quality of a sample depends more on its representativeness (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Therefore, the outcomes of the research can be seen as indicative of wider trend in issues concerning academic staff working conditions, organizational commitment and performance of Nigerian universities.

### **Summary of the Chapter**

The evolution of the perceived obstacles to the organizational commitment of Nigerian academic staff and university performance were mainly external and structural, cutting across financial and non-financial issues. There were also managerial or internal aspects to the issue. The reduced funding pattern of the universities that resulted out of these structural issues affected various aspects of the universities operations and negatively affected the motivation of staff in the system who decided to leave the university system.

The average academic staff currently in the universities studied still expressed poor satisfaction with their working conditions. Teaching resources and facilities had the poorest mean satisfaction score. There was no significant difference found in the mean satisfaction of male and female academics with respect to many of the factors investigated including salary. However, significant gender difference was found with respect to satisfaction with pension scheme. There was no relationship found between satisfaction with job security and proprietorship.

Both financial and non-financial factors can affect the academics decision to remain in their institutions. Factors for personal growth were the same as those that would make academics more inclined to stay but at varying degree of reference. For decision to remain, the factors highly reflect Maslow's physiological and security factors (Maslow, 1943; Ajila, 1997 cited in Latham and Pinder, 2005; Ukaegbu, 2000; Wright, 2001; Adair, 2009); Noltemeyer et al, 2012). Growth factors including Herzberg's intrinsic factors and Adam's equity issues (Pritchard, 1969; Ajila and Abiola, 2004; Adair, 2009; Grant and Shin, 2011) were also highly referred to as important in decision to stay.

It is recommended that administrators of the institutions emphasize competitive salaries, training and other conditions of service, reduction in ethnic and indigenization biases, increase participation and recognition.

The study contributed to knowledge in the following ways:

- As an original work, it provides a framework that acts as measure for needs of Nigerian academics at work which can be extended to other collectivist African countries.
- Added to our understanding on the theoretical explanation of needs that drive behavior at work in a developing and collectivist society, Nigeria.
- The exploration of Nigeria and its people, its university educational system, with information from field work, are fundamental stock of knowledge and hence, relevant to different fields including university administration, industrial relations, human resources management, organizational behaviour, historians, and other related fields of knowledge.
- Added to our knowledge about certain work factors and their relationship with identified demographic variables.

- Added to our knowledge on tools that can be used for building reward or motivation strategy to enhance retention of key academic staff that can help the universities achieve success.

The research is limited by the number of universities in the sample, incomplete performance data, and cross-sectional nature of the research.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: Academic Staff Working Conditions and University Goal Achievement in Nigeria Questionnaire.

#### ACADEMIC STAFF WORKING CONDITIONS AND UNIVERSITY GOALS ACHIEVEMENT IN NIGERIA QUESTIONNAIRE

##### INTRODUCTION

*This questionnaire is designed to gather information on the nature of working conditions for academic staff in the universities in Nigeria and how those conditions are helping the universities to achieve the goals for which they were established. This is a national survey that covers Federal, State and Private universities in Nigeria. The researcher is a PhD student in the above named university and information gathered will be held in strict confidence. Respondents to this questionnaire are randomly selected. Therefore, your kind co-operation and very sincere responses will be highly appreciated. The data gathering exercise is expected to take place between January and February 2012. The research is part of the efforts to discover ways of improving the quality and goal-delivery capacity of Nigerian universities. Findings of the research may therefore contribute to theories and principles that will be of interest to the government, university proprietors, university administrators, academic staff, students and the general public.*

*If you have any question or further information please use the contact phones and emails below:*

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## SECTION 1: PERSONAL DATA OF RESPONDENTS

Please, answer the questions below by ticking the box that applies to you.

1. Proprietorship of your university: (a) Federal Government ☐ (b) State/Local Government ☐ (c) Private ☐
2. Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐
3. Age in years: (a) 20-29 ☐ (b) 30-39 ☐ (c) 40-49 ☐ (d) 50-59 ☐  
(e) 60-69 ☐ (f) 70 and above ☐
4. Highest educational qualification:  
(a) Bachelor degree ☐ (b) Master degree ☐ (d) Doctorate ☐
5. Rank: (a) Graduate Assistant-Lecturer II ☐ (b) Lecturer1- Senior Lecturer ☐  
(c) Associate Professor – Professor ☐



## SECTION 2: ACADEMIC STAFF WORKING CONDITIONS

### INSTRUCTION

For each issue below, please tick the column that best represents your answer/response. The columns are numbered 1 to 10 where 1= least/poor and 10 = maximum/excellent, as the case may be:

i.e. (Least/Poor Satisfaction) 1 -----10  
(Maximum/Excellent)

SN	ISSUE	RESPONSE									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	How satisfied are you with your salaries compared with what your peers in other universities in Nigeria earn?										
2	Do you find loan scheme (if any) in your university helpful or easy to access?										
3	How satisfied are you with the implementation of pension scheme in your university?										
4	How satisfied are you with support received from the university towards improving your professional development in terms of research grants, sponsorship to conferences, publications and related issues such as sabbatical?										
5	Considering procedures/policies on termination of a job in your university, how secure do you consider your job to be?										
6	Do you consider rate and conditions for promotion of academic staff in your university as being satisfactory?										
7	Do you consider your work load light enough as not to weigh you down and allow you sufficient time to take part in other developmental activities such as recreation and professional development?										
8	Do you consider interaction and cooperation among colleagues in your faculty and the university as a whole satisfactory particularly considering their different socio-economic,										

	cultural and religious backgrounds?										
9	How satisfactory do you find support services in your university such as water and power supply and transportation system within the campus?										
10	How satisfactory is your <i>office space and suitability</i> in terms of furnishing, provision of conveniences, etc?										
11	How satisfied are you with recreational facilities for academic staff in your university as being sufficient?										
12	How would you describe access to computers and internet in your university when you need such facilities to do your work?										
13	How is your access to modern instructional tools such as electronic or white boards, projectors, etc when you need them to do your work?										
14	How easy is access to virtual library in your university?										
15	What is the availability of current/relevant textbooks/periodicals (that you need to do your work) in your university/faculty/departmental library?										
16	How satisfactory is your classroom space and suitability in terms of furniture, conveniences, ability to accommodate students, light, cleanliness, etc?										
17	Is mentoring of junior academics by senior staff accorded priority to your satisfaction?										
18	Do you consider your university as using the committee system very effectively to provide staff with opportunity to take part in decision making in the university?										
19	Would you say that basic organs such as the <i>senate and congregation</i> are functioning effectively to enhance university administration?										

20	Would you say the <i>process</i> for selecting persons for leadership position in the university (e.g. Deans or Heads of Department) is transparent and participatory?									
21	Would you say the <i>frequency, mode and speed</i> of communication of important issues to staff is satisfactory and allow you to do your work well?									
22	Would you say that there is a result-oriented academic staff union in your university?									
23	Do you feel you are rightly placed where you can effectively utilize your professional knowledge and skills, considering your area of specialization and the subject area(s) you are currently teaching in your university?									
24	Are you satisfied with governance and leadership of your university?									
25	Do you consider the staff appraisal system satisfactory enough to allow you have appropriate feedback on your performance?									
26	Would you say your working periods is convenient enough to allow you quality time for other personal matters?									
27	Would you say personal growth is important to you?									
28	Do you think your university provides good conditions for personal growth?									

### SECTION 3:

Please, briefly answer the following questions:

(a) In your opinion, what would help you in your personal growth?

(b) What would make you more inclined to stay in the university?

(c) What other factors are important to you in your work? Please, describe.

(d) What would 'perfect' working condition look like? Describe it.

Your Name (Optional): -----

Your telephone number (optional): -----

Your email address (optional): -----

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PRECIOUS TIME.

## UNIVERSITY GOALS ACHIEVEMENT IN NIGERIA QUESTIONS

### INTRODUCTION

*This questionnaire is designed to gather information on the nature of working conditions for academic staff in the universities in Nigeria and how those conditions are helping the universities to achieve the goals for which they were established. This is a national survey that covers Federal, State and Private universities in Nigeria. The researcher is a PhD student in the above named university and information gathered will be held in strict confidence. Respondents to this questionnaire are randomly selected. Therefore, your kind co-operation and very sincere responses will be highly appreciated. The data gathering exercise is expected to take place between January and February 2012. The research is part of the efforts to discover ways of improving the quality and goal-delivery capacity of Nigerian universities. Findings of the research may therefore contribute to theories and principles that will be of interest to the government, university proprietors, university administrators, academic staff, students and the general public.*

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## UNIVERSITY GOAL ACHIEVEMENT QUESTIONS

### INSTRUCTION:

Please, for each item below, you are requested to provide the information needed as best as you can in the answer column provided. Where any particular question is not within your office to provide, could you please, indicate where the information could be located. You may also use additional papers to supply information where the space provided in this paper is not enough.

SN	QUESTION	ANSWER
<b>A</b>	<b>TEACHING ACCOMPLISHMENTS</b>	
1	What is the population of students in the university in year 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year and break each year further down to show the number of post graduate, graduate and sub degree students.	
2	How many students of the university graduated with First Class and Second Class Upper Division in year 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year and for each year separate First Class from Second Class graduates.	
	What is the total number of graduates of the university for years 2009, 2010 and 2011. Please give separate figure for each year.	
3	How many students of the university have distinguished themselves in co-curricular activities such as sports, art, academic competitions, etc in year 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year.	
4	How many students of the university were involved in disciplinary cases (may include incidences of students cultism/gangsters, etc) in year 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year.	
5	How many students of the university had been involved in examination malpractices in year 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figures for each	

	year.	
6	How many academic staff of the university are Associate Professor and above?	
7	What is the population of the academic staff of the university (broken down according to salary grade levels or cadre)? Please give a breakdown of the number of academic staff, cadre by cadre, indicating the number of staff for each cadre.	
<b>B</b>	<b>RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION</b>	
8	How many academic staff of the university won the university's research grant in 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year.	
9	How many academic staff of the university published research findings and/or theoretical papers in national and international journals in 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year.	
10	How many journals did the faculties/departments of the university publish in 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year.	
11	How many conferences did the faculties/departments of the university organize in 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year.	
<b>C</b>	<b>COMMUNITY AND PUBLIC SERVICE</b>	
12	How many academic staff of the university were members of Boards or executive officials of public organisations or professional associations at the national or international levels in the last three years? Please separate the figure for each year.	
13	How many times did your university/faculties or department provide consultancy services to other corporate local or international bodies in the last three years? (Please list the services)	
14	How many academic staff won national or international Awards for distinguished services to humanity or for scientific breakthroughs (e.g. Nobel Peace Prize, Honourary Doctorate Degree)	



	in the last three years?	
<b>D</b>	<b>CORPORATE INDICATORS</b>	
15	How many programmes are currently run by your university and how many are accredited by the National Universities Commission (NUC)?  (Please provide a list of all programmes run by your university)	
16	How many professional courses are run by your university and how many have been accredited by the relevant professional regulatory agencies?  (Please provide a list of all professional programmes run by your university)	
17	Please, list Community Development Projects executed by your university in 2009, 2010 and 2011. Please separate the list for each year.	
<b>E</b>	<b>OTHER ISSUES</b>	
18	How many academic staff of the university were sponsored to conferences/workshops/seminars in 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year.	
19	How many academic staff of the university had their publications sponsored by the university in 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year	
20	How many academic staff of the university were released on sabbatical in 2009, 2010 and 2011? Please separate the figure for each year.	

21. Please, suggest five ways that the university could improve its goal achievement.

- (a) \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_
- (b) \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

- (c) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
- (d) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
- (e) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

22. Additional documents requested:

- a) Students Handbook
- b) Academic Brief and/or Corporate Profile of the university
- c) Other relevant materials.

Your name (optional):-----

Your telephone number (optional): -----

Your email address (optional): -----

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PRECIOUS TIME.



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### ***PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET***

#### **Section A: The Research Project**

1. TITLE OF PROJECT:

**Working towards improving higher education in Nigeria: employee working conditions and achievement of university goals among selected universities.**

2. PURPOSE AND VALUE OF STUDY:

The research is for academic purpose, for the award of the Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree. Findings from the study will add insight into the existing body of knowledge of the problems facing university education in Nigeria. This could possibly equip stakeholders better in dealing with the problems.

3. INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE:

Participants will be mainly academic staff of six selected universities of federal, state and private proprietorship in Nigeria. The study will involve use of mainly questionnaire and interviews. The study intends to involve a total of 300 participants.

4. WHO IS ORGANISING THE RESEARCH:

The research is organized by Mrs. Stella-Maria Nwokeocha, PhD student of Lord Ashcroft International Business School in the above university.

5. WHAT WILL HAPPEN TO THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY:

The results of the research will only be used for academic purpose, for the award of Doctor of Philosophy Degree. Having analyzed the findings, the data collected would be securely stored by the researcher for a while after which it will be discarded. The issue of anonymity and confidentiality of information will still be maintained at this stage.

6. SOURCE OF FUNDING FOR THE RESEARCH: The research is personally funded.

CONTACT FOR FURTHER INFORMATION: The researcher can be contacted at:



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Lord Ashcroft International Business School  
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E-Mail: [stella-maria.nwokeocha@student.anglia.ac.uk](mailto:stella-maria.nwokeocha@student.anglia.ac.uk); [smonnw@yahoo.com](mailto:smonnw@yahoo.com)  
Mobile: +447 7587286171 (UK), +234 7064480578 (Nigeria).

## **Section B: Your Participation in the Research Project**

### **1. WHY YOU HAVE BEEN INVITED TO TAKE PART:**

You have been invited to take part in the study based on random selection criteria used in choosing participants. It is believed that as a member of this academic community, you can share some of your experiences with respect to the conditions under which you carry out your academic functions and possibly proffer some ideas on how to better the situation in your university specifically and the entire Nigerian university education system as a whole.

### **2. WHETHER YOU CAN REFUSE TO TAKE PART:**

In as much as the researcher will highly appreciate that you take part in the study, participation in the research project is purely voluntary.

### **3. WHETHER YOU CAN WITHDRAW AT ANY TIME, AND HOW:**

You can as well withdraw from participation at any stage of the project if you wish, assuming you have accepted to participate. This can be done by returning the questionnaire or any other instrument to the researcher through the above contact in the self addressed envelop provided. You can as well withdraw any information you have provided, or decline commenting or responding to any particular question you feel uncomfortable to answer.

### **4. WHAT WILL HAPPEN IF YOU AGREE TO TAKE PART (BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF PROCEDURES/TESTS):**

If you agree to participate, all you have to do is answer the questions in the questionnaire that will be sent to you with the researcher's self-addressed envelop for the return of the completed questionnaire, as the case may be.

### **5. WHETHER THERE ARE ANY RISKS INVOLVED (E.G. SIDE EFFECTS FROM TAKING PART) AND IF SO WHAT WILL BE DONE TO ENSURE YOUR WELLBEING/SAFETY:**

No side effect is envisaged by your participation as the questionnaire and interview will be anonymous and any information held in strict confidence.

### **6. AGREEMENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH SHOULD NOT COMPROMISE YOUR LEGAL RIGHTS SHOULD SOMETHING GO WRONG:**

Your legal right will not be compromised by your participation in the study if something goes wrong.

7. WHETHER THERE ARE ANY SPECIAL PRECAUTIONS YOU MUST TAKE BEFORE, DURING OR AFTER TAKING PART IN THE STUDY:

As a precautionary measure, you could decide not to disclose your identity or any information that could be used to identify you. You could also wish to avoid disclosing your responses to the questions to other people.

8. WHAT WILL HAPPEN TO ANY INFORMATION/DATA/SAMPLES THAT ARE COLLECTED FROM YOU:

Any information or data collected from you will be part of aggregated data extracted from other respondents that will be used for analysis and drawing conclusion on the subject studied.

9. WHETHER THERE ARE ANY BENEFITS FROM TAKING PART:

By responding to the questions, you will be contributing to the solution of the problems in Nigeria's university education system and thereby helping in national development.

10. HOW YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THE PROJECT WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL:

Any information about your participation in the research will be kept private and your data not made available to third parties. To enhance this confidentiality, any identifying information about your participation will be destroyed as soon as they are no longer needed. The data collected from you will be safeguarded in a manner that it will not be accessible to other people.

YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS TO KEEP,  
TOGETHER WITH A COPY OF YOUR CONSENT FORM

## Appendix IV: Participant Consent Form



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### PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

NAME OF PARTICIPANT:

Title of the project: **Working towards improving higher education in Nigeria: employee working conditions and achievement of university goals among selected universities.**

Main investigator and contact details:

Stella-Maria Nwokeocha,  
Lord Ashcroft International Business School,  
Anglia Ruskin University, Cambridge Campus,  
East Road, Cambridge,  
CB1 1PT, United Kingdom.  
E-Mail: [stella-maria.nwokeocha@student.anglia.ac.uk](mailto:stella-maria.nwokeocha@student.anglia.ac.uk); [smonnw@yahoo.com](mailto:smonnw@yahoo.com)  
Mobile: +447 7587286171 (UK), +234 7064480578 (Nigeria).

1. I agree to take part in the above research. I have read the Participant Information Sheet which is attached to this form. I understand what my role will be in this research, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.
2. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the research at any time, for any reason and without prejudice.
3. I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded.
4. I am free to ask any questions at any time before and during the study.
5. I have been provided with a copy of this form and the Participant Information Sheet.





Data Protection: I agree to the University<sup>1</sup> processing personal data which I have supplied. I agree to the processing of such data for any purposes connected with the Research Project as outlined to me\*

Name of participant (print).....Signed.....Date.....

Name of witness (print).....Signed.....Date.....

YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS FORM TO KEEP

---

If you wish to withdraw from the research, please complete the form below and return to the main investigator named above.

Title of Project:

**I WISH TO WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY**

Signed: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

---

<sup>1</sup> "The University" includes Anglia Ruskin University and its partner colleges

## Appendix V: Statistical Analysis

**Appendix V: Table 1: Individual Respondent's Total Rating of Working Conditions, Percentage, Variance and Standard Deviation. N = 248**

ID	Gender	Total score (x)	%	$X - \bar{X}$	$(X - \bar{X})^2$
1	F	235	83.92857	91.03	8286.461
2	M	157	56.07143	13.03	169.7809
3	M	78	27.85714	-65.97	4352.041
4	M	166	59.28571	22.03	485.3209
5	F	81	28.92857	-62.97	3965.221
6	M	152	54.28571	8.03	64.4809
7	F	107	38.21429	-36.97	1366.781
8	M	163	58.21429	19.03	362.1409
9	M	107	38.21429	-36.97	1366.781
10	F	130	46.42857	-13.97	195.1609
11	M	111	39.64286	-32.97	1087.021
12	M	108	38.57143	-35.97	1293.841
13	F	48	17.14286	-95.97	9210.241
14	M	199	71.07143	55.03	3028.301
15	F	121	43.21429	-22.97	527.6209
16	M	167	59.64286	23.03	530.3809
17	F	146	52.14286	2.03	4.1209
18	M	131	46.78571	-12.97	168.2209
19	M	157	56.07143	13.03	169.7809
20	F	135	48.21429	-8.97	80.4609
21	F	147	52.5	3.03	9.1809
22	M	102	36.42857	-41.97	1761.481
23	F	126	45	-17.97	322.9209
24	F	129	46.07143	-14.97	224.1009
25	M	90	32.14286	-53.97	2912.761
26	F	144	51.42857	0.03	0.0009
27	F	148	52.85714	4.03	16.2409



28	F	160	57.14286	16.03	256.9609
29	M	238	85	94.03	8841.641
30	M	196	70	52.03	2707.121
31	M	132	47.14286	-11.97	143.2809
32	F	122	43.57143	-21.97	482.6809
33	M	171	61.07143	27.03	730.6209
34	F	105	37.5	-38.97	1518.661
35	M	135	48.21429	-8.97	80.4609
36	M	124	44.28571	-19.97	398.8009
37	M	70	25	-73.97	5471.561
38	F	131	46.78571	-12.97	168.2209
39	F	148	52.85714	4.03	16.2409
40	M	132	47.14286	-11.97	143.2809
41	M	159	56.78571	15.03	225.9009
42	M	129	46.07143	-14.97	224.1009
43	M	79	28.21429	-64.97	4221.101
44	M	130	46.428 57	-13.97	195.1609
45	M	169	60.35714	25.03	626.5009
46	M	128	45.71429	-15.97	255.0409
47	M	138	49.28571	-5.97	35.6409
48	F	182	65	38.03	1446.281
49	M	122	43.57143	-21.97	482.6809

50	M	139	49.64286	-4.97	24.7009
51	F	174	62.14286	30.03	901.8009
52	F	131	46.78571	-12.97	168.2209
53	F	158	56.42857	14.03	196.8409
54	M	111	39.64286	-32.97	1087.021
55	M	157	56.07143	13.03	169.7809
56	F	117	41.78571	-26.97	727.3809
57	M	155	55.35714	11.03	121.6609
58	M	112	40	-31.97	1022.081
59	M	119	42.5	-24.97	623.5009
60	M	129	46.07143	-14.97	224.1009
61	F	184	65.71429	40.03	1602.401
62	M	153	54.64286	9.03	81.5409
63	M	140	50	-3.97	15.7609
64	M	148	52.85714	4.03	16.2409
65	M	147	52.5	3.03	9.1809
66	M	109	38.92857	-34.97	1222.901
67	M	102	36.42857	-41.97	1761.481
68	M	114	40.71429	-29.97	898.2009
69	M	157	56.07143	13.03	169.7809
70	M	146	52.14286	2.03	4.1209
71	M	97	34.64286	-46.97	2206.181
72	F	106	37.85714	-37.97	1441.721
73	M	152	54.28571	8.03	64.4809
74	M	129	46.07143	-14.97	224.1009
75	M	147	52.5	3.03	9.1809
76	M	127	45.35714	-16.97	287.9809
77	M	145	51.78571	1.03	1.0609
78	M	107	38.21429	-36.97	1366.781
79	M	194	69.28571	50.03	2503.001
80	M	185	66.07143	41.03	1683.461
81	M	130	46.42857	-13.97	195.1609
82	F	128	45.71429	-15.97	255.0409
83	M	155	55.35714	11.03	121.6609

84	M	199	71.07143	55.03	3028.301
85	M	140	50	-3.97	15.7609
86	F	262	93.57143	118.03	13931.08
87	M	139	49.64286	-4.97	24.7009
88	F	188	67.14286	44.03	1938.641
89	M	149	53.21429	5.03	25.3009
90	M	166	59.28571	22.03	485.3209
91	M	191	68.21429	47.03	2211.821
92	F	82	29.28571	-61.97	3840.281
93	M	103	36.78571	-40.97	1678.541
94	M	200	71.42857	56.03	3139.361
95	M	173	61.78571	29.03	842.7409
96	F	146	52.14286	2.03	4.1209
97	M	181	64.64286	37.03	1371.221
98	F	159	56.78571	15.03	225.9009
99	M	83	29.64286	-60.97	3717.341
100	F	138	49.28571	-5.97	35.6409
101	F	77	27.5	-66.97	4484.981
102	F	85	30.35714	-58.97	3477.461
103	M	182	65	38.03	1446.281
104	M	118	42.14286	-25.97	674.4409
105	M	166	59.28571	22.03	485.3209
106	M	77	27.5	-66.97	4484.981
107	M	117	41.78571	-26.97	727.3809
108	F	61	21.78571	-82.97	6884.021
109	M	128	45.71429	-15.97	255.0409
110	M	107	38.21429	-36.97	1366.781
111	M	118	42.14286	-25.97	674.4409
112	M	115	41.07143	-28.97	839.2609
113	M	127	45.35714	-16.97	287.9809
114	M	99	35.35714	-44.97	2022.301
115	M	222	79.28571	78.03	6088.681
116	M	126	45	-17.97	322.9209
117	M	102	36.42857	-41.97	1761.481

118	M	77	27.5	-66.97	4484.981
119	M	176	62.85714	32.03	1025.921
120	M	191	68.21429	47.03	2211.821
121	M	162	57.85714	18.03	325.0809
122	M	82	29.28571	-61.97	3840.281
123	F	81	28.92857	-62.97	3965.221
124	M	80	28.57143	-63.97	4092.161
125	M	154	55	10.03	100.6009
126	M	234	83.57143	90.03	8105.401
127	M	104	37.14286	-39.97	1597.601
128	M	80	28.57143	-63.97	4092.161
129	M	102	36.42857	-41.97	1761.481
130	M	125	44.64286	-18.97	359.8609
131	M	85	30.35714	-58.97	3477.461
132	F	91	32.5	-52.97	2805.821
133	F	65	23.21429	-78.97	6236.261
134	M	163	58.21429	19.03	362.1409
135	F	136	48.57143	-7.97	63.5209
136	M	145	51.78571	1.03	1.0609
137	M	147	52.5	41.03	9.1809
138	M	185	66.07143	41.03	1683.461
139	F	108	38.57143	-35.97	1293.841
140	M	144	51.42857	0.03	0.0009
141	F	149	53.21429	5.03	25.3009
142	F	134	47.85714	-9.97	99.4009
143	M	107	38.21429	-36.97	1366.781
144	M	153	54.64286	9.03	81.5409
145	M	124	44.28571	-19.97	398.8009
146	M	159	56.78571	15.03	225.9009
147	M	129	46.07143	-14.97	224.1009
148	M	84	30	-59.97	3596.401
149	M	155	55.35714	11.03	121.6609
150	M	158	56.42857	14.03	196.8409
151	F	149	53.21429	5.03	25.3009

152	M	146	52.14286	2.03	4.1209
153	M	142	50.71429	-1.97	3.8809
154	M	136	48.57143	-7.97	63.5209
155	F	73	26.07143	-70.97	5036.741
156	F	122	43.57143	-21.97	482.6809
157	M	148	52.85714	4.03	16.2409
158	M	159	56.78571	15.03	225.9009
159	M	138	49.28571	-5.97	35.6409
160	F	125	44.64286	-18.97	359.8609
161	M	95	33.92857	-48.97	2398.061
162	M	124	44.28571	-19.97	398.8009
163	F	126	45	-17.97	322.9209
164	F	143	51.07143	-0.97	0.9409
165	M	130	46.42857	-13.97	195.1609
166	M	141	50.35714	-2.97	8.8209
167	M	115	41.07143	-28.97	839.2609
168	M	136	48.57143	-7.97	63.5209
169	M	96	34.28571	-47.97	2301.121
170	M	137	48.92857	-6.97	48.5809
171	F	133	47.5	-10.97	120.3409
172	M	108	38.57143	-35.97	1293.841
173	F	234	83.57143	90.03	8105.401
174	M	163	58.21429	19.03	362.1409
175	M	247	88.21429	103.03	10615.18
176	M	179	63.92857	35.03	1227.101
177	M	91	32.5	-52.97	2805.821
178	M	118	42.14286	-25.97	674.4409
179	M	227	81.07143	83.03	6893.981
180	M	106	37.85714	-37.97	1441.721
181	F	137	48.92857	-6.97	48.5809
182	M	193	68.92857	49.03	2403.941
183	F	140	50	-3.97	15.7609
184	F	147	52.5	3.03	9.1809
185	F	142	50.71429	-1.97	3.8809

186	M	232	82.85714	88.03	7749.281
187	M	163	58.21429	19.03	362.1409
188	M	176	62.85714	32.03	1025.921
189	F	195	69.64286	51.03	2604.061
190	M	133	47.5	-10.97	120.3409
191	M	192	68.57143	48.03	2306.881
192	M	157	56.07143	13.03	169.7809
193	M	191	68.21429	47.03	2211.821
194	M	219	78.21429	75.03	5629.501
195	F	148	52.85714	4.03	16.2409
196	M	259	92.5	115.03	13231.9
197	M	163	58.21429	19.03	362.1409
198	M	203	72.5	59.03	3484.541
199	M	168	60	24.03	577.4409
200	M	198	70.71429	54.03	2919.241
201	M	173	61.78571	29.03	842.7409
202	M	156	55.71429	12.03	144.7209
203	M	211	75.35714	67.03	4493.021
204	M	239	85.35714	95.03	9030.701
205	M	121	43.21429	-22.97	527.6209
206	F	88	31.42857	-55.97	3132.641
207	M	175	62.5	31.03	962.8609
208	M	222	79.28571	78.03	6088.681
209	M	159	56.78571	15.03	225.9009
210	M	108	38.57143	-35.97	1293.841
211	F	158	56.42857	14.03	196.8409
212	M	172	61.42857	28.03	785.6809
213	M	167	59.64286	23.03	530.3809
214	F	221	78.92857	77.03	5933.621
215	F	185	66.07143	41.03	1683.461
216	F	189	67.5	45.03	2027.701
217	M	150	53.57143	6.03	36.3609
218	M	176	62.85714	32.03	1025.921
219	M	130	46.42857	-13.97	195.1609

220	F	228	81.42857	84.03	7061.041
221	F	195	69.64286	51.03	2604.061
222	F	178	63.57143	34.03	1158.041
223	M	138	49.28571	-5.97	35.6409
224	F	178	63.57143	34.03	1158.041
225	M	123	43.92857	-20.97	439.7409
226	F	85	30.35714	-58.97	3477.461
227	M	159	56.78571	15.03	225.9009
228	M	145	51.78571	1.03	1.0609
229	M	180	64.28571	36.03	1298.161
230	M	186	66.42857	42.03	1766.521
231	M	232	82.85714	88.03	7749.281
232	F	146	52.14286	2.03	4.1209
233	M	126	45	-17.97	322.9209
234	M	161	57.5	17.03	290.0209
235	F	116	41.42857	-27.97	782.3209
236	M	110	39.28571	-33.97	1153.961
237	M	120	42.85714	-23.97	574.5609
238	M	124	44.28571	-19.97	398.8009
239	M	84	30	-59.97	3596.401
240	F	154	55	10.03	100.6009
241	F	138	49.28571	-5.97	35.6409
242	M	137	48.92857	-6.97	48.5809
243	M	124	44.28571	-19.97	398.8009
244	F	184	65.71429	40.03	1602.401
245	M	124	44.28571	-19.97	398.8009
246	M	145	51.78571	1.03	1.0609
247	F	205	73.21429	61.03	3724.661
248	M	152	54.28571	8.03	64.4809
<b>TOTAL</b> <b>(Σ)</b>		<b>35704</b>	12751.43	<b>-0.56</b>	<b>394327.7</b>

Mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) =  $\Sigma X/N = 35704/248 = 143.9677419 = \mathbf{143.97}$  (51.42%)

$$\text{Variance } (S^2) = \Sigma(X - \bar{X})^2 / N - 1 = 394327.7 / 248 - 1 = 394327.7 / 247 = 1596.468421 = \mathbf{1596.47}$$

$$\text{Std. Dev.} = \sqrt{S^2} = \sqrt{1596.47} = 39.9558 = \mathbf{39.96}$$

$$\text{Standard Error } (S_E) = \sqrt{S^2} / N = \sqrt{1596.47} / 248 = \sqrt{6.44} = \mathbf{2.54}$$

$$\text{Male overall Mean Satisfaction Scores} = \bar{X}_M = \mathbf{145.1 (51.82\%)}$$

$$\text{Female overall Mean satisfaction Scores} = \bar{X}_F = \mathbf{141.21 (50.43\%)}$$

### **T-test Calculation:**

Step 1: Null Hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): There is no significant difference between the overall satisfaction of Male and Female academics.

Alternate ( $H_1$ ): There is significant difference between male and female academics' overall satisfaction with working conditions.

Level of significance at  $\alpha = .05$ , two tails

Step 2: Critical region:  $df = N - 1 = 248 - 1 = \mathbf{247}$ . For two-tail test at .05 level of significance, the critical t value lies at **1.652** (by interpolation  $p = .05$ ,  $df$  200 = 1.653,  $df$  250 = 1.651, therefore,  $p = .05$ ,  $df = 247$ , critical t value =  $1.653 + 1.651 / 2 = 1.652$ )

Step 3: t-test calculation:

$$\text{Variance } (S^2) = \mathbf{1596.47}$$

$$S_E = \sqrt{S^2} / N = \sqrt{1596.47} / 248 = \sqrt{6.44} = \mathbf{2.54}$$

$t = \bar{X}_M - \bar{X}_F / S_E$ ; where  $\bar{X}_M$  = Male overall mean satisfaction;  $\bar{X}_F$  = Female overall mean satisfaction;  $S_E$  is the standard error.

$$= 145.1 - 141.21 / 2.54 = 3.89 / 2.54 = \mathbf{1.53}$$

Step 4 Decision on  $H_0$ : The t statistics 1.53 obtained is not within the critical region so the  $H_0$  is accepted and concludes that there is no significant difference between the overall satisfaction of the male and female academics;  $t(247) = 1.53$ ,  $p < .05$ .



**Appendix V: Table 2. Frequency Table for Poor and Excellent Satisfaction Rating for each item of Working Conditions; N = 248**

<b>Qn</b>	<b>Poor Satisfaction (F<sub>P</sub>)</b>	<b>Excellent Satisfaction (F<sub>E</sub>)</b>	<b>Missing Data</b>	<b>Total</b>
Q1	109	139	0	248
Q2	164	80	4	248
Q3	159	84	5	248
Q4	166	82	0	248
Q5	98	149	1	248
Q6	105	142	1	248
Q7	153	95	0	248
Q8	107	141	0	248
Q9	156	92	0	248
Q10	159	89	0	248
Q11	200	47	1	248
Q12	182	66	0	248
Q13	184	64	0	248
Q14	173	73	2	248
Q15	176	71	1	248
Q16	175	73	0	248
Q17	177	68	3	248
Q18	151	96	1	248
Q19	102	145	1	248

Q20	128	120	0	248
Q21	146	101	1	248
Q22	144	103	1	248
Q23	77	171	0	248
Q24	108	140	0	248
Q25	133	115	0	248
Q26	125	123	0	248
Q27	31	214	3	248
Q28	123	124	1	248
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>3911</b>	<b>3007</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>6944</b>

**Appendix V: Table 3. Frequency Table for Poor – Excellent satisfaction with Working Conditions based on Gender Scores for each Item in the Questionnaire.**

(Scores 1-5 = Poor; 6-10 = Excellent), N = 248

Qn	Poor Satisfaction		Excellent Satisfaction		Missing Items (0)		Total Score
	Male (P <sub>m</sub> )	Female (P <sub>f</sub> )	Male (E <sub>m</sub> )	Female (E <sub>f</sub> )	M	F	
1	77	32	99	40			248
2	115	49	59	21	2	2	248
3	117	39	56	31	3	2	248
4	115	50	61	22	-	-	248
5	69	29	106	43	1	-	248
6	69	36	106	36	1		248
7	106	47	70	25	-	-	248
8	77	30	99	42	-	-	248
9	109	45	67	27	-	-	248
10	110	49	66	23	-	-	248

11	143	57	32	15	1	-	248
12	127	55	49	17	-	-	248
13	132	52	44	20	-	-	248
14	118	55	56	17	2		248
15	124	52	52	19		1	248
16	122	53	54	19			248
17	123	54	51	17	2	1	248
18	104	47	71	25	1	-	248
19	70	32	105	40	1	-	248
20	91	37	85	35	-	-	248
21	100	46	76	25	-	1	248
22	104	40	72	31	-	1	248
23	55	22	121	50	-	-	248
24	81	27	95	45	-	-	248
25	96	37	80	35	-	-	248
26	89	36	87	36	-	-	248
27	24	7	150	64	2	1	248
28	89	34	86	38	1	-	248
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>2756</b>	<b>1149</b>	<b>2155</b>	<b>858</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>9</b>	6944

### Chi-square ( $X^2$ ) Calculation:

**Step 1.** *Ho*: There is no significant satisfaction difference in the responses of the demographic categories with respect to the identified factors.

*H1*: There is a significant difference in satisfaction between the demographic categories.

For the test, the p value is determined at .05 level of significance.

**Step 2.** Degree of Freedom (df) = (R - 1)(C - 1), where R = number of rows, C = number of columns.

For this study,

$$df = (2-1)(2-1) = 1$$

With df = 2, p = .05, the critical value chi-square or Table  $X^2$  is **3.841**

**Step 3.** Calculation of the expected frequency (Fe) and computation of the chi-square statistics.

$X^2$  Formula =  $\Sigma(F_o - F_e)^2 / F_e$ , where  $F_o$  = observed frequency;  $F_e$  = expected frequency

$F_e = F_i F_j / n$ , where  $F_i$  = frequency total for the row (row total);  $F_j$  = frequency total for the column (column total);  $n$  = number of individuals in the sample;  $i$  = row,  $j$  = column.

**Step 4.** Make decision with regard to the null hypothesis by accepting or rejecting it based on result.

#### Appendix V: Table 4. Two-way Frequency Table Chi-Square ( $X^2$ ) Table

##### Satisfaction with Salary and gender

Sex	Salary		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Male	(a) 77	(c) 99	<b>176</b>
Female	(b) 32	(d) 40	<b>72</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>139</b>	<b>248</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.01$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p < .05$

$F_e = (i \times j) / N$ ;  $N$  = Total (i.e row total x column total /Total number of people in the sample).

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	176	109	248	77.35
b	72	109	248	31.65
c	176	139	248	98.65
d	72	139	248	40.35

$$X^2 = \Sigma(F_o - F_e)^2 / F_e$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	77	77.35	-0.35	0.12	0.001
b	32	31.65	0.35	0.12	0.004
c	99	98.65	0.35	0.12	0.002
d	40	40.35	-0.35	0.12	0.003
					$\Sigma 0.01$

### Appendix V: Table 5. Two-way Frequency and Chi-Square ( $X^2$ ) Table

#### Satisfaction with access to loan and gender

Sex	0 (Missing)	Access to Loan		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
Male	2	(a) 115	(c) 59	<b>176</b>
Female	2	(b) 49	(d) 21	<b>72</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>248</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.36$ ; df = 1; p < .05

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	176	164	248	116.38
b	72	164	248	47.61
c	176	80	248	56.77
d	72	80	248	23.23

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo - Fe)^2 / Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo - Fe	(Fo - Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo - Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	115	116.38	-1.38	1.90	0.02
b	49	47.61	1.39	1.93	0.04
c	59	56.77	2.23	4.97	0.09
d	21	23.23	-2.23	4.97	0.21
					$\Sigma 0.36$

### Appendix V: Table 6. Two-way Frequency and Chi-Square ( $X^2$ ) Table

#### Satisfaction with Pension scheme and gender

Sex	0	Pension Scheme		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
Male	3	(a) 117	(c) 56	<b>176</b>
Female	2	(b) 39	(d) 31	<b>72</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>156</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>248</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 88.25$ ; df = 1; p < .05

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	176	156	248	110.71
b	72	156	248	45.29
c	176	87	248	61.74
d	72	87	248	25.26

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	117	110.71	6.29	39.56	0.36
b	39	45.29	-6.29	39.56	0.87
c	56	61.74	-5.74	32.95	0.53
d	72	25.26	46.74	2184.63	86.49
					$\Sigma 88.25$

**Appendix V: Table 7. Two-way Frequency and Chi-Square (X<sup>2</sup>) Table**

**Satisfaction with support for professional development**

Sex	Support for Professional Development		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Male	(a) 116	(c) 60	<b>176</b>
Female	(b) 50	(d) 22	<b>72</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>248</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.3$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	176	166	248	117.81
b	72	166	248	48.19
c	176	82	248	58.19
d	72	82	248	23.81

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	116	117.81	-1.81	3.28	0.03
b	50	48.19	1.81	3.28	0.07
c	60	58.19	1.81	3.28	0.06
d	22	23.81	-1.81	3.28	0.14
					$\Sigma 0.3$

**Appendix V: Table 8. Two-way Frequency and Chi-Square (X<sup>2</sup>) Table**

**Satisfaction with job security and gender**

Sex	0	Job Security		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
Male	1	(a) 69	(c) 106	<b>176</b>

Female	0	(b)29	(d) 43	<b>72</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>98</b>	<b>149</b>	<b>248</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.02$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
A	176	98	248	69.55
B	72	98	248	28.45
C	176	149	248	105.74
D	72	149	248	43.26

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
A	69	69.55	-0.55	0.30	0.004
B	29	28.45	0.55	0.30	0.01
C	106	105.74	0.26	0.07	0.000
D	43	43.26	-0.26	0.07	0.001
					<b>Σ0.02</b>

#### Appendix V: Table 9. Two-way Frequency Table and Chi-Square ( $X^2$ )

Satisfaction with promotion processes and gender

Sex	0	Promotion Process		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
Male	1	(a) 69	(c) 106	<b>176</b>
Female	0	(b) 36	(d) 36	<b>72</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>142</b>	<b>248</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 2.34$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	J	N	(i)(j)/N
a	176	105	248	74.52
b	72	105	248	30.48
c	176	142	248	100.77
d	72	142	248	41.23

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	69	74.52	-5.52	30.47	0.41
b	36	30.48	5.52	30.47	1.00
c	106	100.77	5.23	27.35	0.27
d	36	41.23	-5.23	27.35	0.66

**Appendix V: Table 10. Two-way Frequency Table and Chi-Square ( $X^2$ )**

**Satisfaction with access to computer and internet and gender**

Sex	Access to Computer and Internet		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Male	(a) 127	(c) 49	<b>176</b>
Female	(b) 55	(d) 17	<b>72</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>182</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>248</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.47$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$Fe = (i \times j)/N$ ; N = Total

Cell	I	J	N	(i)(j)/N
a	176	182	248	129.16
b	72	182	248	52.84
c	176	66	248	46.84
d	72	66	248	19.16

$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo - Fe)^2 / Fe$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo - Fe	(Fo - Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo - Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	127	129.16	-2.16	4.67	0.04
b	55	52.84	2.16	4.67	0.09
c	49	46.84	2.16	4.67	0.10
d	17	19.16	-2.16	4.67	0.24
					Σ0.47

**Appendix V: Table 11. Frequency Scores for Questions 1 – 28, Section 2 of the Questionnaire, based on Proprietorship**

Qn	Poor Satisfaction			Excellent Satisfaction			Missing Items			Total Score
	Poor P <sub>f</sub>	State (P <sub>s</sub> )	Private (P <sub>p</sub> )	Federal (E <sub>f</sub> )	State (E <sub>s</sub> )	Private E <sub>p</sub>	Fed	Stat	Priv	
1	35	52	22	54	30	55	0	0	0	248



2	65	62	37	24	18	38	0	2	2	248
3	64	71	24	25	7	52	0	4	1	248
4	73	55	38	16	27	39	0	0	0	248
5	38	35	25	51	46	52	0	1	0	248
6	46	40	18	43	41	59	0	1	0	248
7	63	51	39	26	31	38	0	0	0	248
8	43	48	16	46	34	61	0	0	0	248
9	56	70	30	33	12	47	0	0	0	248
10	57	62	40	32	20	37	0	0	0	248
11	69	77	54	20	5	22	0	0	1	248
12	62	70	50	27	12	27	0	0	0	248
13	68	67	49	21	15	28	0	0	0	248
14	61	67	45	27	14	32	1	1	0	248
15	63	69	43	25	13	34	0	1	0	248
16	77	61	37	12	21	40	0	0	0	248
17	71	63	43	18	18	32	0	1	2	248
18	56	60	35	33	21	42	0	1	0	248
19	45	33	24	44	48	53	0	1	0	248
20	30	60	38	59	22	39	0	0	0	248
21	54	53	39	35	28	38	0	1	0	248
22	44	32	69	45	50	7	0	0	1	248
23	21	33	23	68	49	54	0	0	0	248
24	39	42	27	50	40	50	0	0	0	248
25	58	44	32	31	38	45	0	0	0	248
26	45	53	27	44	29	50	0	0	0	248
27	11	12	8	77	70	67	1	0	2	248
28	46	49	28	42	33	49	1	0	0	248
<b>TOT AL</b>	<b>1460</b>	<b>1491</b>	<b>960</b>	<b>1028</b>	<b>792</b>	<b>1187</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>9</b>	

P<sub>f</sub> = Poor satisfaction for Federal Universities, E<sub>f</sub> = Excellent satisfaction for Fed. Univ;

P<sub>s</sub> = Poor satisfaction for State Universities, E<sub>s</sub> = Excellent satisfaction for State Univ.; P<sub>p</sub>

= Poor satisfaction for Private Universities, E<sub>p</sub> = Excellent satisfaction for Private universities

**Appendix V: Table 12 (a). Contingency table and Chi-square**

**Satisfaction with Salary and Proprietorship: Federal and State**

Proprietorship	Salary		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 35	(c) 54	89
State (SU)	(b) 52	(d) 30	82
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 9.9$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$Fe = (i \times j)/N$ ; N = Total

Cell	I	J	N	(i)(j)/N
A	89	87	171	45.28
B	82	87	171	41.72
C	89	84	171	43.72
D	82	84	171	40.28

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	35	45.28	-10.28	105.68	2.33
b	52	41.72	10.28	105.68	2.53
c	54	43.72	10.28	105.68	2.42
d	30	40.28	-10.28	105.68	2.62
					<b>Σ9.9</b>

**Appendix V: Table 12 (b). Contingency table and Chi-square**

**Satisfaction with Salary and Proprietorship: Federal and Private**

Proprietorship	Salary		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 35	(c) 54	89
Private (PU)	(b) 22	(d) 55	77
<b>Total</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 2.13$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	J	N	(i)(j)/N
A	89	57	166	30.56
B	77	57	166	26.44
C	89	109	166	58.44
D	77	109	166	50.56

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
A	35	30.56	4.44	19.71	0.65
B	22	26.44	-4.44	19.71	0.75
C	54	58.44	-4.44	19.71	0.34
D	55	50.56	4.44	19.71	0.39
					<b>Σ2.13</b>

#### Appendix V: Table 12 (c). Contingency table and Chi-square

##### Satisfaction with Salary and Proprietorship: State and Private

Proprietorship	Salary		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	(a) 52	(c) 30	82
Private(PU)	(b) 22	(d) 55	77
<b>Total</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>159</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 30.18$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
A	82	74	159	30.16
B	77	74	159	35.84
C	82	85	159	43.84
D	77	85	159	41.16

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	52	30.16	21.84	476.99	15.82
b	22	35.84	-13.84	191.55	5.34
c	30	43.84	-13.84	191.55	4.37
d	55	41.16	13.84	191.55	4.65
					<b>Σ30.18</b>

#### Appendix V: Table 13 (a). Contingency table and Chi-square

##### Satisfaction with loan scheme and Proprietorship: Federal and State

Proprietorship	0	Loan Scheme		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	0	(a) 65	(c) 24	89
State (SU)	2	(b) 62	(d) 18	82
<b>Total</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>127</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.48$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$Fe = (i \times j)/N$ ; N = Total

Cell	I	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	127	171	66.10
b	82	127	171	60.90
c	89	42	171	21.86
d	82	42	171	20.14

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	65	66.10	-1.1	1.21	0.02
b	62	60.90	1.1	1.21	0.02
c	24	21.86	2.14	4.58	0.21
d	18	20.14	-2.14	4.58	0.23
					<b>Σ0.48</b>

### Appendix V: Table 13 (b) Contingency table and Chi-square

#### Satisfaction with loan scheme and Proprietorship: Federal and Private

Proprietorship	0	Loan Scheme		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	0	(a) 65	(c) 24	89
Private (PU)	2	(b) 37	(d) 38	77
<b>Total</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 9.73$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$Fe = (i \times j)/N$ ; N = Total

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	102	166	54.69
b	77	102	166	47.31
c	89	62	166	33.24
d	77	62	166	28.76

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo - Fe)^2 / Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo - Fe	(Fo - Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo - Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	65	54.69	10.31	106.3	1.94
b	37	47.31	-10.31	106.3	2.25
c	24	33.24	-9.24	85.38	2.57
d	38	28.76	9.24	85.38	2.97
					<b><math>\Sigma 9.73</math></b>

### Appendix V: Table 13 (c) Contingency table and Chi-square

#### Satisfaction with access to Loan scheme and Proprietorship: State and Private

Proprietorship	0	Loan Scheme		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	2	(a) 62	(c) 18	82
Private (PU)	2	(b) 37	(d) 38	77
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>159</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 13.3$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	J	N	(i)(j)/N
a	82	99	159	51.06
b	77	99	159	47.94
c	82	56	159	28.88
d	77	56	159	27.12

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	62	51.06	10.94	119.68	2.34
b	37	47.94	-10.94	119.68	2.50
c	18	28.88	-10.88	118.37	4.10
d	38	27.12	10.88	118.37	4.36
					<b>Σ13.3</b>

#### Appendix V: Table 14 (a). Contingency table and Chi-square

##### Satisfaction with pension scheme and Proprietorship: federal and state

Proprietorship	0	Pension Scheme		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	0	(c) 64	(c) 25	89
State (SU)	4	(d) 71	(d) 7	82
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>135</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 9.9$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	135	171	70.26
b	82	135	171	64.74
c	89	32	171	16.65
d	82	32	171	15.35

$$X^2 = \Sigma(\text{Fo}-\text{Fe})^2/\text{Fe}$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	64	70.26	-6.26	39.19	0.56
b	71	64.74	6.26	39.19	0.61
c	25	16.65	8.35	69.72	4.19
d	7	15.35	-8.35	69.72	4.54
					<b>Σ9.9</b>

#### Appendix V: Table 14 (b) Contingency table and Chi-square

##### Satisfaction with Pension scheme and Proprietorship: federal and Private

Proprietorship	0	Pension Scheme		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	0	(a) 64	(c) 25	89
Private (PU)	1	(b) 23	(d) 53	77
<b>Total</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 28.52$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$\text{Fe} = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	87	166	46.64
b	77	87	166	40.36
c	89	78	166	41.82
d	77	78	166	36.18

$$X^2 = \Sigma(\text{Fo}-\text{Fe})^2/\text{Fe}$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	64	46.64	17.36	301.37	6.46
b	23	40.36	-17.36	301.37	7.47
c	25	41.82	-16.82	282.91	6.77
d	53	36.18	16.82	282.91	7.82
					<b>Σ28.52</b>

### Appendix V: Table 14 (c) Contingency table and Chi-square

#### Satisfaction with Pension scheme and Proprietorship: State and Private

Proprietorship	0	Pension Scheme		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	4	(a) 71	(c) 7	82
Private (PU)	1	(b) 23	(d) 53	77
<b>Total</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>94</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>159</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 59.84$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$Fe = (i \times j)/N$ ; N = Total

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	82	94	159	48.48
b	77	94	159	45.52
c	82	60	159	30.94
d	77	60	159	29.06

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo - Fe)^2 / Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo - Fe	(Fo - Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo - Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	71	48.48	22.52	507.15	10.46
b	23	45.52	-22.52	507.15	11.14
c	7	30.94	-23.94	573.12	18.52
d	53	29.06	23.94	573.12	19.72
					<b><math>\Sigma 59.84</math></b>

### Table 15 (a) Contingency table and Chi-square

#### Satisfaction with opportunity for Professional Development and Proprietorship: Federal and State

Proprietorship	Opportunity for Professional Development		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 73	(c) 16	89



State (SU)	(b) 55	(d) 27	82
<b>Total</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 5.06$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$Fe = (i \times j)/N$ ; N = Total

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	128	171	66.62
b	82	128	171	61.38
c	89	43	171	22.38
d	82	43	171	20.62

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	73	66.62	6.38	40.70	0.61
b	55	61.38	-6.38	40.70	0.66
c	16	22.38	-6.38	40.70	1.82
d	27	20.62	6.38	40.70	1.97
					<b>Σ5.06</b>

#### Appendix V: Table 15 (b) Contingency table and Chi-square

**Satisfaction with opportunity for Professional Development and Proprietorship:  
federal and private**

Proprietorship	Opportunity for Professional Development		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 73	(c) 16	89
Private(PU)	(b) 38	(d) 39	77
<b>Total</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 19.89$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$F_e = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	111	166	59.51
b	77	111	166	51.49
c	89	55	166	29.49
d	77	55	166	25.51

$$X^2 = \Sigma(F_o - F_e)^2 / F_e$$

Cell	F <sub>o</sub>	F <sub>e</sub>	F <sub>o</sub> -F <sub>e</sub>	(F <sub>o</sub> -F <sub>e</sub> ) <sup>2</sup>	(F <sub>o</sub> -F <sub>e</sub> ) <sup>2</sup> /F <sub>e</sub>
a	73	59.51	13.49	181.98	3.06
b	38	51.49	-13.49	181.98	3.53
c	16	29.49	-13.49	181.98	6.17
d	39	25.51	13.49	181.98	7.13
					<b>Σ19.89</b>

#### Appendix V: Table 15 (c) Contingency table and Chi-square

**Satisfaction with opportunity for Professional Development and Proprietorship:  
State and Private**

Proprietorship	Opportunity for Professional Development		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	(a) 55	(c) 27	82
Private (PU)	(b) 38	(d) 39	77
<b>Total</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>159</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 5.14$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$F_e = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	82	93	159	47.96
b	77	93	159	45.04
c	82	66	159	34.04
d	77	66	159	31.96

$$X^2 = \Sigma(\text{Fo}-\text{Fe})^2/\text{Fe}$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	55	47.96	7.04	49.56	1.03
b	38	45.04	-7.04	49.56	1.10
c	27	34.04	-7.04	49.56	1.46
d	39	31.96	7.04	49.56	1.55
					<b>Σ5.14</b>

### Appendix V: Table 16 (a) Contingency table and Chi-square

#### Satisfaction with Job Security and Proprietorship: Federal and State

Proprietorship	Job Security		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 38	(c) 51	<b>89</b>
State (SU)	(b) 35	(d) 47	<b>82</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>98</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.00$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$\text{Fe} = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	73	171	37.99
b	82	73	171	35.01
c	89	98	171	51.01
d	82	98	171	46.99

$$X^2 = \Sigma(\text{Fo}-\text{Fe})^2/\text{Fe}$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	38	37.99	0.01	0.00	0.00
b	35	35.01	-0.01	0.00	0.00
c	51	51.01	-0.01	0.00	0.00
d	47	46.99	0.01	0.00	0.00
					<b>Σ0.00</b>

**Appendix V: Table 16 (b) Contingency table and Chi-square**

**Satisfaction with Job Security and Proprietorship: Federal and Private**

Proprietorship	Job Security		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 38	(c) 51	<b>89</b>
Private (PU)	(b) 25	(d) 52	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 1.83$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$Fe = (i \times j)/N$ ; N = Total

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	63	166	33.78
b	77	63	166	29.22
c	89	103	166	55.22
d	77	103	166	47.78

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	38	33.78	4.22	17.81	0.53
b	25	29.22	-4.22	17.81	0.61
c	51	55.22	-4.22	17.81	0.32
d	52	47.78	4.22	17.81	0.37
					<b>Σ1.83</b>

**Appendix V: Table 16 (c) Contingency table and Chi-square**

**Satisfaction with Job Security and Proprietorship: State and Private**

Proprietorship	Job Security		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	(a)35	(c) 47	<b>82</b>
Private (PU)	(b) 25	(d) 52	<b>77</b>

<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>159</b>
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Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 1.76$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .05$

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	J	N	(i)(j)/N
a	82	60	159	30.94
b	77	60	159	29.06
c	82	99	159	51.06
d	77	99	159	47.94

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	35	30.94	4.06	16.48	0.53
b	25	29.06	-4.06	16.48	0.57
c	47	51.06	-4.06	16.48	0.32
d	52	47.94	4.06	16.48	0.34
					<b>Σ1.76</b>

#### Appendix V: Table 17 (a). Contingency table and Chi-square

##### Satisfaction with Promotional Process and Proprietorship: Federal and State

Proprietorship	0	Promotional Process		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	0	(a) 46	(c) 43	<b>89</b>
State (SU)	1	(b) 40	(d) 41	<b>82</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.09$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .05$

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	86	171	44.76
b	82	86	171	41.24
c	89	84	171	43.72

d	82	84	171	40.28
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$$X^2 = \Sigma(\text{Fo}-\text{Fe})^2/\text{Fe}$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	46	44.76	1.24	1.54	0.03
b	40	41.24	-1.24	1.54	0.04
c	43	43.72	-0.72	0.52	0.01
d	41	40.28	0.72	0.52	0.01
					<b>Σ0.09</b>

#### Appendix V: Table 17 (b). Contingency table and Chi-square

##### Satisfaction with Promotional Process and Proprietorship: Federal and Private

Proprietorship	Promotional Process		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 46	(c)43	<b>89</b>
Private (PU)	(b) 18	(d) 59	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 13.97$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$\text{Fe} = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	64	166	34.31
b	77	64	166	29.69
c	89	102	166	54.69
d	77	102	166	47.31

$$X^2 = \Sigma(\text{Fo}-\text{Fe})^2/\text{Fe}$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	46	34.31	11.69	136.66	3.98
b	18	29.69	-11.69	136.66	4.60
c	43	54.69	-11.69	136.66	2.50
d	59	47.31	11.69	136.66	2.89

**Appendix V: Table 17 (c). Contingency table and Chi-square**

**Satisfaction with Promotional Process and Proprietorship: State and Private**

Proprietorship	0	Promotional Process		Total
		Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	1	(a) 40	(c) 41	<b>82</b>
Private (PU)	0	(b) 18	(d) 59	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>159</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 11.5$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .05$

$Fe = (i \times j)/N$ ;  $N = \text{Total}$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	82	58	159	29.91
b	77	58	159	28.09
c	82	100	159	51.57
d	77	100	159	48.43

$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	40	29.91	10.09	101.81	3.40
b	18	28.09	-10.09	101.81	3.62
c	41	51.57	-10.57	111.72	2.17
d	59	48.43	10.57	111.72	2.31
					<b>Σ11.5</b>

**Appendix V: Table 18 (a) Contingency table and Chi-square**

**Satisfaction with Access to Computer and internet facilities and Proprietorship:  
Federal and State**

Proprietorship	Access to computer and internet facilities	Total
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	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 62	(c) 27	<b>89</b>
State (SU)	(b) 70	(d) 12	<b>82</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>132</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>171</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 5.97$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$Fe = (i \times j)/N$ ; N = Total

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	132	171	68.70
b	82	132	171	63.30
c	89	39	171	20.30
d	82	39	171	18.70

$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	62	68.70	-6.7	44.89	0.65
b	70	63.30	6.7	44.89	0.71
c	27	20.30	6.7	44.89	2.21
d	12	18.70	-6.7	44.89	2.40
					<b><math>\Sigma 5.97</math></b>

#### Appendix V: Table 18 (b) Contingency table and Chi-square

**Satisfaction with Access to Computer and internet facilities and Proprietorship:  
Federal and Private**

Proprietorship	Access to computer and internet facilities		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
Federal (FU)	(a) 62	(c) 27	<b>89</b>
Private (PU)	(b) 50	(d) 27	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>166</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 0.41$ ; df = 1; p = .05



$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	89	112	166	60.05
b	77	112	166	51.95
c	89	54	166	28.95
d	77	54	166	25.05

$$X^2 = \Sigma(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	62	60.05	1.95	3.80	0.06
b	50	51.95	-1.95	3.80	0.07
c	27	28.95	-1.95	3.80	0.13
d	27	25.05	1.95	3.80	0.15
					<b>Σ0.41</b>

#### Appendix V: Table 18 (c) Contingency table and Chi-square

**Satisfaction with Access to Computer and internet facilities and Proprietorship:  
State and Private**

Proprietorship	Access to Computer and internet facilities		Total
	Poor	Excellent	
State (SU)	(a) 70	(c) 12	<b>82</b>
Private (PU)	(b) 50	(d) 27	<b>77</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>159</b>

Table  $X^2 = 3.841$ , calculate  $X^2 = 8.96$ ; df = 1; p = .05

$$Fe = (i \times j)/N; N = \text{Total}$$

Cell	i	j	N	(i)(j)/N
a	82	120	159	61.89
b	77	120	159	58.11
c	82	39	159	20.11

d	77	39	159	18.87
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$$X^2 = \Sigma(\text{Fo}-\text{Fe})^2/\text{Fe}$$

Cell	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup>	(Fo-Fe) <sup>2</sup> /Fe
a	70	61.89	8.11	65.77	1.06
b	50	58.11	-8.11	65.77	1.13
c	12	20.11	-8.11	65.77	3.27
d	27	18.87	8.13	66.10	3.50
					<b>Σ8.96</b>

## Appendix VI: Map of Nigeria



Source: Nigerian Muse, 2010. Maps of various states and their Local Governments in Nigeria: Nigeria. Available online at:

<http://www.nigerianmuse.com/20100527092749zg/sections/pictures-maps-cartoons/maps-of-various-states-and-their-local-governments-in-nigeria/> [Accessed 13 December 2014]